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ABSTRACT

This journal issue explores alternative ways to increase student involvement in the social studies classroom. Subject content remains a major stumbling block because of the knowledge explosion and the realization that half the students in school today will earn a living in an occupation not yet invented. The relationship between content and process is examined in the article "Apprenticeship for Living." The existing literature is reviewed in "Student Involvement In the Teaching and Learning of Social Studies." The remaining articles present possible alternatives for involving students. Role playing, dramatic interpretation and case studies are presented in "Historical Interpretations and Impersonations," "American History: Reviewed, Revamped, and Revitalized," and "Doing It With Cases." Environmental and consumer education are discussed in "You Are Your Own Environment," and "Socio-Economic Aspects of Budgeting in the Family." Field participation in archeology and preparing students for the responsibilities of citizenship are discussed in "Looking Forward to the Past" and "Project 18: A Case Study in Social Studies Curriculum Development." Independent study and student teacher preparation are examined in "Student Oriented Learning: An Attempt to Use Independent Study Within the Constraints of a Discipline," and "Student Teaching in an Innovative School." (DE)

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Student Involvement In The Classroom

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COVER: Kim Pehan, Third Grader, at The Battle of Monmouth.

COVER CREDITS: Jim Edwards and Denny Robertson, Aurora West High School from a painting by D. M. Cartor.

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A Piece of the Action: Student Involvement in the Classroom

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Robert L. Dunlap

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INTRODUCTION

A perennial criticism of the social studies by student and public alike is that it is for the most part dull. Why? And why does the majority of the public feel that this boredom is an inherent part of the subject matter?

While not suggesting that this volume will produce a solution to this dilemma, this issue of the **Councilor** does address itself to segments of the problem and some alternatives are proposed. As the title implies, students should be actively involved in their education. Too long has regimentation and rote memory been the "albatross" carried by the social studies. This, I would propose, should not, and indeed, need not be the case. Gone are the days, when only one approach to the subject was available. Individualized and inquiry oriented materials are available in either textual or supplemental form. A choice is now afforded as to the approach (or approaches) which will best meet the needs of the students in that particular school. Yet, with all the new materials and methods available to the teachers, the broad sweeping changes which were expected to encompass the social studies have not as yet occurred.

Content may be the biggest stumbling block preventing the complete transition into the "new social studies" (which are now over ten years old). We must come to grips with the realities of life in dealing with subject content, one such reality being that the knowledge explosion is going to continue, and another is that over half the students in school will earn a living in an occupation not yet invented. Accepting, just these two factors, makes lecturing on the "civil war" battle by battle seem quite ridiculous. Or to phrase it differently, it it more important for a student to locate Timbuktu on a map within twenty seconds or to be able to know how to locate this and other places using the various means available to aid in these locations?

In his article "Apprenticeship For Living", Dr. Allan H. Yamakawa makes his position on the direction of social studies quite clear. He examines, and draws some rather harsh conclusions as to the value of social studies. The relationship between content and process are brought into perspective with the emphasis being the student's role in society.

Professors Armstrong and Lange investigate just how much "Student Involvement In The Teaching And Learning Of Social Studies" is taking place by reviewing existing literature.

The remaining articles present possible alternatives for involving students in their education. These articles suggest ways of enabling students to become active participants rather than passive receivers.

Ideas, role playing, and dramatic interpretations by students as well as by teachers are presented by DuFour and Edwards in their article "Historical Interpretations And Impersonations: A Stu-

dent And Teacher Acted Program For The Classroom". Duane K. Everhart further discusses history in his article, "American History: Reviewed, Revamped, And Revitalized". The case study approach, with an emphasis on Black History, is presented by Professor McLemore in his article, "Doing It With Cases".

Dr. Noel McInnis discusses the vital topic of environmental education from a broad perspective and suggests that "You Are Your Own Environment". Aspects of consumer education, with some interesting activities are to be found in Berrier, Cipriano, and Coleman's article, "Socio-Economic Aspects of Budgeting in the Family". Field participation in archeology is presented by Robert Stelton in "Looking Forward To The Past".

While social studies teachers have always been involved in preparing students to assume the responsibilities of citizenship, the responsibility has been brought 'closer to home' with the lowering of the voting age to eighteen. Dr. Madden in "Project 18: A Case Study in Social Studies Curriculum Development" has attempted to come to grips with this challenge. His article proposes some interesting alternatives in citizenship education.

Independent study, as well as other forms of instruction, are investigated by Lawrence J. Marzulli in his article, "Student Oriented Learning: An Attempt To Use Independent Study Within The Constraints Of A Discipline". "Student Teaching In An Innovative School", by Dr. Elwell discusses what types of programs can be made available to better help prepare potential teachers for what lies ahead and as equally important to enable them to carry through new techniques into the classroom.

These articles are not the total answer. No one source can provide this. However, it is hoped that this edition of the **Councilor** will provide some support, stimulas, and maybe even some inspiration. In some small way, it is hoped that it will be a help to you, one of the vital agents for change in our society.

Robert L. Dunlap, Editor

APPRENTICESHIP FOR LIVING

By Allen H. Yamakawa

What is the basic survival value of the social sciences? How does course content and strategy in elementary and secondary social studies help develop a functioning, competent adult?

The survival characteristics within a participative democracy are largely seen to be, not content knowledge, but process skills, such as sensitivity, analysis, comparison, correlation, hypothesis, creative extrapolation, synthesis, and value-forming.

Surely subject-matter-content plays a part; comparison and correlation require a cognitive substrate. BUT THAT CONTENT IS SIGNIFICANT WITHIN THE LIFE OF THAT STUDENT ONLY INSOFAR AS HE OR SHE IS ABLE TO USE IT WITHIN A PROCESS CONTEXT.

Strange, then, that many schools still use the sponge-theory of instruction:

> First one builds a building with several rooms. Then into each room one puts thirty or so chairs. And then a teacher is hired on the basis of knowledge of the cognitive content of his or her course specialization(s) and ability to present that material clearly. And then one puts sponges on each chair.
>
> Some sponges are larger than other sponges (because some children are brighter than others). And the teacher occupies her time by throwing knowledge into that room Monday thru Thursday.
>
> And then, on Friday, she walks through that room with a measuring cup, squeezing each sponge to see how much it has retained. One full cup = 100%!
>
> Hardly ever measured is the student's ability — or desire — to use that content within an inquiry process, for rational decision-making, or in a reality-based situation.

Not all the "sponges" flourish under these conditions. There are some for which this instructional strategy leads to stagnation; suffering mildew of the mind and spirit, these gifted are among the casualty losses of the war of facts.

There are others, too — in appallingly larger numbers — who are frightened by a fact-based, black-or-white, correct-or-incorrect,

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right-is-good-and-wrong-is-bad instructional plan. These exhibit what I have come to call the "shrinking center syndrome."

> Picture a junior or senior high United States History classroom. In the third row is a young man well known in the school for his athletic ability, good looks, ready wit, conversational ability, and maturity. And for the fact that these attributes have helped make him the most popular boy in school, captain and star center of the basketball team, and boyfriend to the prettiest girl in the school who sits in the seat just in front of him in this classroom.
>
> Behold the teacher. She has a question to "open the discussion" for today's session: "Students, from your reading assignment last night, let's discuss the factors which led up to the War of 1812!"
>
> (Think for a moment of the silliness of that remark: **discuss?** The teacher has taught this course for eleven years, the last three out of this same book. She has the good edition of the book — thirty extra pages to accomodate marginal instructions to the teacher and answers to all questions in the student edition. Discuss **what?)**
>
> In this context, behold our young man. He read last night's assignment, but didn't understand it well enough to brave this kind of "discussion," which after all requires that he regurgitate right answers already known to the teacher. So he shrinks.
>
> He retracts his head into his shoulders, slumps his shoulders, bows his backbone, and slides down in his seat far enough so that he is almost completely hidden behind his five-foot-two girlfriend.
>
> Ten years from now, when confronted with an election issue which baffles him, rather than think about the central concepts and apply problem-solving process to investigate and understand it and formulate a rational standpoint, he will hide again. Only this time, it will be easier. All he needs to do is join that silent majority which doesn't even bother to vote.

The actual subject-matter-content (facts, dates, names, places) have come to be regarded as "important" by teachers for a variety of reasons, some better than others. In calmer retrospect, however, it can be argued that the facts, dates, names, and places are important mainly if one regards the social sciences as vocational training courses — for the training of teachers of social sciences. Most ordinary citizens need values — checking, process skills, and facts as a background — and only a background — against which these processes are carried out. Even professional social scientists agree that such processes are the key tools of their trade. Only teachers deal mainly in facts.

Breaking the chain of tradition which tends to perpetuate fact-teaching in the schools is a difficult matter. Many teachers have great difficulty verbalizing the conceptual relationships and process skills whose acquisition will result in a real social education. Thus, arrangement of content, behavioral objectives, and class activities cannot be done in this vacuum.

The greatest obstacle, however, is probably the textbook. Its very nature urges "sponging." It deals with the past, in material unknown to the students but in which the teacher is expert. Very little in a textbook will inspire the student to look for personal relevance, to identify with problems, or to set himself to seek a personal solution.

And so it is that I have come to recommend the use of contemporary media in the social sciences. The reasons are many:

> There is a sense of immediacy, of significance, and of personal interest.
>
> The issues are ones in which the students do not feel disadvantaged, thus leading to freer discussion.
>
> The problems are real ones, permitting the application in a real setting of problem-solving processes.
>
> And since these problems and issues are ones which students often need to investigate because they lack background, media makes it possible to introduce subject-matter-content as **desired evidence** in the comparison correlation steps of the process.

Some years back, I had occasion to structure a United States History course on the basis of eight umbrella concepts (the number doesn't matter; the choice of structure is the teacher's) -- conflict, power, institution, social ecology, causality, valuing, individuality, uniqueness — under which every single piece of content for the course was classified.

During the year, fortune brought a transportation strike in which the students were interested because they and their families were personally inconvenienced. So began a very short discussion. In seven minutes, the students discovered they didn't know very much about strikes. "What do you mean, why? Because, that's why. I've already told you everything I think, know, feel or believe twice!"

They then read the newspapers which we had in the classroom. From them, they learned what the mayor had said, how merchants feared heavy losses as shoppers were unable to reach the business center, and how managers felt about the inability of workers to report to factories and offices.

Then began another discussion. About fifteen minutes. Both of these discussions were uninhibited since the teacher was not supposed to be an expert on a bus drivers' strike happening that very morning, and thus would not be judging contributions right or wrong. In fact, I joined into the discussion as an equal, pointing out that since I

hadn't made up my mind yet about who to be upset with and why, this discussion was useful to me in helping me think things out. By the end of this second discussion, however, the students had some definite questions about conflicts in general and strikes in particular to which they wanted answers. Also, there were now two sides clearly drawn for argument.

At this point, I shook out my conflict umbrella. To each student was given a different event in history (from Ann Hutchinson to the Civil War to the breakdown of the League of Nations) which carried the dimension of conflict. Students were urged to use textbooks and reference material to gather evidence for their arguments — that is, to look for parallels and differences.

This last argument lasted two weeks, during which a student would make a point using the League of Nations as evidence only to have Ann Hutchinson used to knock a large hole in his reasoning. Naturally, he would look up Ann Hutchinson, too, hoping to find a flaw in logic so that he could strike back. Thus, subject matter, all related in that they referred to the origins, continuation, and resolution of conflicts within groups, were introduced regardless of where they fell on the time line.

At the end of the two weeks, total agreement had been reached by the students, who concluded that no one should be blamed for the strike since it was a natural consequence of a breakdown of communication within the group. They came up with five generalizations about groups which showed unusual maturity for eleven- and twelve-year-olds:

1. All groups are composed of factions.
2. A large group will prosper so long as it can keep all of its factions believing that it meets their needs. They don't really have to meet the needs, however. (They used machine politics as one of the examples of evidence on this point.)
3. Anytime the larger group stops looking like it's meeting their needs, the factions will try to change the large group or to get out of it.
4. It does not matter which is attempted; the large group will automatically oppose it. (They used the Civil War as one of the examples here.)
5. It doesn't matter who wins; the large group will be damaged by the confrontation, either in its internal cohesiveness or its external effectiveness. But the least damage will be done if there are few non-negotiable demands on either side so that lasting grudges and a feeling of having been 'put down' can be avoided.

These obviously represent synthesis of a large amount of subject matter, as well as some important value-forming. The procedure, which was repeated many more times during the semester using

other concepts, is very easy on the teacher. (That particular year, instead of running out of semester during the Civil War, this class completed all of the content required by May 1; we used the rest of the time to test their many generalizations against every conceivable sort of contemporary social issue, to their great delight.)

Not only is a conceptually organized, inductive, process approach interesting to students, it is also very easy to teach, especially with media input. It requires minimal organization, no external coercion; is self-leveling; encourages participation and teamwork. But apart from all this, there is one further reason why I strongly recommend such an approach:

It is significant apprenticeship for a participative, informed adulthood.

STUDENT INVOLVEMENT IN THE TEACHING AND LEARNING OF SOCIAL STUDIES

By Nolan A. Armstrong and Robert M. Lange

Professional journals, textbooks, and conferences advocate student involvement in the teaching-learning process. Like other educational concepts, "student involvement" is broadly interpreted by educators and practitioners alike. The literature disclosed that the terminology commonly used to describe this student involvement included relevancy, decision-making, valuing, problem-solving, inquiry, individualization, and expected competencies and skills.

The authors surveyed recent (1969 to date) literature to obtain a precise description of the current student involvement in the teaching-learning process in the field of social studies and were thwarted by the paucity of material available on the subject.

Far too often the articles reviewed simply illustrated various teaching techniques used by classroom teachers; although their implied or stated intent was to describe student involvement. For example, one could secure data pertaining to a comparison between the traditional-teaching methodology as contrasted with team-teaching, inquiry-teaching, problem-solving-teaching, skill-teaching and value-clarification-teaching; however, precise descriptions, which could lead to estimates of types or the degree of student involvement in the planning and learning procedures was conspicuously lacking.

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL SOCIAL STUDIES

The literature revealed that the elementary classroom teachers were generally more willing to attempt new and different innovations in the areas of social studies. Their counterpart in the secondary schools were prone to instruct via the lecture-small group-discussion methodology. However, this assumption has been made by the authors with reservation due to the insufficient data available on the subject matter.

Thorney and Horton[11] concluded from their research concerning the use of simulation games with elementary school students, that there exists a definite need for more empirical studies. As yet, evidence is insufficient to support the idea that simulation games improve motivation and develop intellectual skills.

Hunkins[6] reported, from his research pertaining to questioning strategies and the resultant increase in critical thinking as measured by the **Social Studies Inference Test**, no significant difference between a group of sixth grade students requested to answer analysis,

NOTE: Because of the lack of adequate descriptions of student involvement the information gleaned from the literature will be organized into that stemming from the elementary and the secondary phases of education rather than by type or degree of involvement.

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and evaluation type questions on text-book materials and a control group not examined on similar type questions.

Through the skillful application of role playing Collins[3] created a condition within his classroom that allowed the students to experience how a metropolitan city government functions. Nelson[7] and Eisemon[4] also, illustrated the potential value of studying various cultures through the use of role playing. Hawkins,[5] operating on the theory that each student is a unique individual with special talents, created a psychological classroom climate that encouraged each student to become self-directed and, at the same time, a potential resource person for his classmates. Interesting as these descriptions of student involvement are, they did not objectively evaluate the technique for verification of their usefulness as a learning strategy.

Bildeman[2] did assert that students' interest in social studies would increase if they were actively involved in the learning process. To help develop perspective about historical events, his students were engaged in the building and drawing of scaled models in sand. No evidence was offered to substantiate his claim.

Olson[9] strengthened the axiomatic statement, that many times even though students have the answer to a question, they do not have adequate communication skills to make themselves understood. He used a non-directive counselor technique of rephrasing the students' questions and or answers in order that they could clarify their thoughts.

The literature offers little to substantiate the notion of effective learning through student involvement in the planning and teaching of social studies at the elementary level. It appears that the teacher was predominately in direct control. Along with inadequate descriptions of techniques or treatments, there was no objective evidence disclosed to legitimatize the notion that students can contribute effectively to their learning in social studies by any specific type of involvement.

SECONDARY SCHOOL SOCIAL STUDIES

The empirical evidence reviewed by the authors in the area of secondary school social studies is also inadequate to identify any tenor. Most of the literature dealt with pre-service teacher training procedures and in-service workshop programs.

An exception to this general criticism was the report by Austin.[1] His experimental group did significantly better than a control group when asked during instruction to 1) develop hypotheses, 2) offer tentative solutions and consequences, and 3) indicate sensitivity to others.

Other articles reviewed by the authors did not offer any precise information as to the treatment given experimental groups or analytical procedures of the data collected. An article by Peters[10] is typical of current reports of high school student involvement in learning in the social studies area. He reports that his students

photographed numerous aspects of the local community and then categorized their findings into areas of concepts, generalizations and analyzed them in the classroom. He claimed that this technique kept student interest high but offered no empirical evidence.

In conclusion, if we advocate validity in our claims related to educating today's youth, it is imperative documented data is acquired about student involvement in the teaching-learning process. If action research is to be of any value to the classroom social studies teacher, it needs to be designed, controlled, and reported in a scholarly but descriptively, complete, and understandable manner, so that the results may be utilized by them. At present, the literature confirms the statement that student involvement in the teaching-learning process in the area of social studies contributes to learning only in theory and not in practice.

NOTE: The Office of Superintendent of Public Instruction (OSPI) has a consultant service available to Illinois Public School teachers through the division of Research, Planning, and Development in Springfield. This service is identified as PRAIRIE. Information can be secured by contacting Dr. James Howard, Director. This service is free to individual teachers or school systems who engage each other for mutual help to complete more precise action-type research and to disseminate the research results through the O.S.P.I. News letter.

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HISTORICAL INTERPRETATIONS AND IMPERSONATIONS: STUDENT AND TEACHER-ACTED PROGRAMS FOR THE CLASSROOM

By: James Edwards and Rick DuFour

Students can play a bigger part in their education than sitting in the classroom as inanimate objects passively taking down memory assignments from their instructor. They can be taught to think about and participate with the information being considered in the classroom. In this manner the student is challenged and is apt to begin to develop inquiry skills of his own rather than to rely on those of the instructor. These skills will be retained long after the test at the end of any course.

The purpose of this article is not to offer proof of the value of running an inquiry classroom, although sufficient proof exists, but to suggest an interesting and rewarding class activity regardless of what your general method of instruction might be.

Let students reveal information to other students. They can appear as someone other than themselves—as historical figures, as spokesmen for particular philosophies or as representatives of certain groups. The perfect setting for students to try such role playing is a Readers Theatre. Topics such as "War", "Violence" and "Intolerance" can be made to come alive for those involved as actors and viewers.

Three years ago such a Readers Theatre was constructed at Aurora West High School and has been presented by five different student casts and viewed by over 2500 students. The Readers Theatre is called "War" and consists of historical readings and dramatic cuts from the humanities that relate to the central theme. It is used to introduce American history students to a study unit entitled, "Foreign Policy: Gunpowder or Words?"

Eight students are selected to play the various roles. Each student not only has to become extremely familiar with his material but has to persuade the audience of the value of his selection. The students in the audience enjoy seeing their classmates in charge of things for a change; seeing students as **educators!**

The following outlines the program used successfully at Aurora West.

"War"

A Readers Theatre by James Edwards

running time: 50 minutes

cast: 8 students

JAMES EDWARDS is a Teacher at West Senior High School, Aurora, Illinois, and RICK DuFOUR is a Teacher at Batavia High School, Batavia, Illinois. Both teach United States History.

Contents

Narrator

1.	"Deuteronomy 18:20	The Bible Revised Standard Edition
2.	"Lochinvar"	Scott
3.	**The Crusades**	Suskind
4.	"Charge of the Light Brigade"	Tennyson
5.	**The War Prayer**	Twain
6.	"The White Man's Burden"	Kipling
7.	"Who Invited U.S."	Butler
8.	"Jack and Jill", a short play Media Presentation	Edwards
9.	**All Quiet on the Western Front**	Remarque
10.	"Dulce et Decorum Est"	Owen
11.	"Cannon Song"	Brecht
12.	Short Oration Defending U.S. Foreign Policy	Zeller
13.	Short Oration Attacking U.S. Foreign Policy	Edwards
14.	"Universal Soldier"	Sainte-marie
15.	"Ballad of the Green Berets"	Sadler

I possible the Readers Theatre on "War" should be performed on a stage rather than in a classroom of regular size. At West Aurora, "War" was given each of the five hours in the school day before an audience of approximately 125 students per hour. Our readers for the theatre were American history students excused from their other classes for the day.

For costuming we dress our readers in black and position them on stage on stools or on risers from which they stand or look up when it is their turn to do a reading. Overhead mikes are used to pick up their voices; but if you have a small room or auditorium, these may not be necessary. A single overhead spotlight bathes the readers in light, but the general staging area must be dark so that the color pictures on slides can be shown on a large screen placed in the center.

A student acts as a narrator who introduces each reading and ties it to the following one. For each of the readings we show one or two 35mm slides to help create a mood or tie-up. The slides are shown as the reader interprets his selection. For example, to correlate with the reading of Wildred Owen's "Dulce et Decorum Est", a color impressionistic slide of a gassed World War I soldier is shown. In addition to these mood-creating slides, a slide-tape sequence is shown in the middle of the Readers Theatre. This sequence consists of slides placed in a projector with 5 second automatic advance and shown with Eric Burdon's song "War". The folk songs which conclude the Readers Theatre can either be recited as prose or sung with guitar accompaniment if you have students so inclined.

The short play within the program, "Jack and Jill", takes ten minutes to present and relates a nation's foreign policy toward other nations to kids in a kindergarten room fighting over a limited

supply of blocks and toys. The student narrator frequently breaks into the action of the play to make comparisons between the "game" being played out in the playroom to the diplomatic struggle between nations. At the end of the play all reason and compromise is abandoned and Jack and Jill attack each other with baseball bats, their ultimate weapons. As they scream out the word "war", the slide-tape sequence starts. This bit of theatrics is the most effective point in the Readers Theatre. Jack and Jill are costumed as small children and use alphabet blocks and toys as props. For this particular part of the theatre we allow the students to assume the character of Jack and Jill rather than interpret readings.

On the day following the presentation of the Readers Theatre, all students — actors, interpretors and viewers — join in a discussion about the ideas and emotions portrayed in the theatre. In small groups the students evaluate what they have seen and ask themselves questions such as: "Is war an effective tool of international diplomacy?", Should war and the threat of war be used by nations?", "What position does each reading take on the subject?", "Was the Readers Theatre biased?", "What makes each reading believable or unbelievable?".

Students welcomed this activity as an escape from normal classroom procedure. In 1971 students at West Aurora took the Readers Theatre format and wrote and acted a presentation on pollution for the entire student body.

Some other possible themes which students might like to develop and act in are: "Black Odyssey: Past and Present", "Violence in America", "Views on Death", "You Have Come a Long Way, Baby?", "Man and Woman: A Cabinet of Values and Moralities", "The Presidency", "Spiro Who?: A Look at Obscure but Laughable Figures Out of the Dark Corners of the United States History", "The West", "Fears of Man", and "Indians".

An additional application of the technique might also be used to directly involve teachers and students in the material they are studying. **Teachers can appear before classes as actors.** While the advantages of teacher role playing have generally been recognized, the technique has presented problems. The biggest obstacle faced by the enterprising instructor who previously used this method was that regardless of how elaborate his costuming and make-up, how extensive his research to provide authenticity, or how convincing his acting, he remained "good old Mr. Jones", history teacher. Most students were unable to overcome this identity barrier and continued to relate to him as teacher rather than the role he was attempting to construct. Students who attempted to role play were hampered by the same problem.

Two high schools have eliminated this barrier by allowing teachers, and hopefully in the future, students, to visit each others' schools to make such presentations. Batavia and West Aurora High Schools started a joint venture with the swap of the two teachers authoring this article in the fall of 1972.

Rick DuFour of Batavia High School, dressed in Japanese robes

and sporting a Fu Manchu, was presented as a Japanese-American to American history classes at Aurora West. Describing a ficticious background he convinced the students of his Japanese ancestory. With this identity established, he attempted to persuade the students that it was the United States, not Japan, that provoked the war between the two nations.

Assembling a mass of evidence with which to indict the American government, he portrayed its position as meddlesome and uncompromising. He asserted:

1) a racist attitude was the underlying characteristic of United States policy toward Japan and cited the Gentleman's Agreement of 1907 and Japanese Exclusion Act of 1924 as examples.

2) the Japanese invasion of Manchuria in 1931 was merely an attempt to prevent Communist infiltration of an area vital to the security of Japan. The United States refused to recognize this fact, piously condemning Japan while, armed with Monroe Doctrine, it maintained the right to unilaterally intervene in the western hemisphere at will.

3) the war that erupted between Japan and China in 1937 was initiated by the latter. Even though the American ambassador to China, Joseph Grew, advised his government accordingly, the State Department immediately labeled Japan the aggressor and began massive assistance to China.

4) President Roosevelt sought a means of entering World War II following his election in 1940, despite his campaign promises to the contrary ("I have told you again and again and again: your boys are not going to be sent into any foreign wars"). To achieve this objective he determined to "provoke" a Japanese attack upon the United States. Thus, he initiated a policy aimed at the economic strangulation of Nippon. Most damaging was the embargo which froze Japan from the world's supply of oil, the one resource essential to mechanized warfare. As its oil supply plummeted, Japan was faced with the alternative of discontinuing four years of effort in its struggle with China or striking in order to obtain the oil it needed to bring the war to a successful conclusion.

5) in the weeks prior to Pearl Harbor it was Japan that anxiously sought to negotiate peace and the United States that rejected the opportunities presented. Thus, Japan offered to withdraw from Indo-China and to guarantee the maintenance of the Open Door in the Far East. In return, the Japanese government asked only to be allowed to purchase oil in the United States. Roosevelt flatly refused, as he did when the desperate Prime Minister of Japan requested a summit meeting between the two leaders as a last ditch effort to avoid war.

6) forced into this conflict against the mightiest industrial nation in the world, Japan adopted the only strategy that offered it any hope of success — a sneak attack. The response to the

news of Pearl Harbor in the official circles of the United States government was relief that the American strategy had been successful.

The Japanese speaker listed quotations from a number of sources, both primary and secondary, to support his case. These quotes were made available to the students as a mimeograph handout during the presentation. They included:

"We cannot oppose Japanese plans in Manchuria ethically in view of measures we have taken in our corresponding vital zone, the Carribean" - Ferdinand I. Mayer; American Ambassador to China, advising the State Department.

"The question was how we should maneuver them (Japan) into firing the first shot without allowing too much danger to ourselves . . . We realized that in order to have the full support of the American people it was desirable to make sure that the Japanese be the ones to do this." — From Secretary of War, Henry Stimson's secret diary.

"Although Japan sought peace with the United States, the President's ever-increasing belligerency finally succeeded in manipulating them into attack." — Charles Callan Tansill, **Back Door to War.**

"No amount of excuses will palliate the conduct of President Roosevelt and his advisors. They failed; with calculation, to keep the United States out of war and to avoid a clash with Japan. They reckoned with cold detachment the risk of manipulating a delegated enemy into firing the first shot, and they forced 3,000 unsuspecting men at Pearl Harbor to accept that risk. — George Morgenstern, **Pearl Harbor: The Story of the Secret War.**

"In order to promote Roosevelt's political ambitions and his mendacious foreign policy some three thousand boys were quite needlessly butchered at Pearl Harbor." — Harry Elmer Barnes, **Perpetual War for Perpetual Peace.**

"FDR decided the only way to get America to enter the war was to provoke an attack by Japan. The method devised was to create an 'incident' in which Japan would commit the first overt act" — Fredric Sanborn, **Design for War.**

"When we first heard of the attack there was a feeling of relief that the indecision was over and that a crisis had come in a way that would unite all our people." — Stimson's diary.

Jim Edwards, West Aurora instructor, followed with a rebuttal defending United States actions prior to Pearl Harbor. After listening to the arguments of both sides, students were free to question and debate DuFour and Edwards and to expand upon the issues presented. Their attentiveness during the presentation and enthusiastic participation in the discussion and debate indicated a high degree of acceptance of this role playing program. Open-ended reaction forms passed out to students at the end of each class period

were also extremely positive in nature (example: "Why can't we do this all the time?", "I don't like history, but I really liked class today!", "Can I do a report on the issues brought out by the discussion today?"). After the presentation each hour, crowds of students gathered to ask questions of the Japanese-American and to thank him for coming.

This spring Edwards will reinterpret a role he has performed twice; that of a son of a German concentration camp commander. The son will be dressed normally for the presentation, except that during it he will assume the character and personality of his father by putting on a Nazi armband and a "Hitler" mustache. He will tell the student audience that he hated to exterminate the Jews in his camp but that he was under orders; food was short and the physical limits of the camp were constantly being taxed by the arrival of new prisoners. He will recount also the "positive" aspects of Nazism and show that many of their tenents were quite "American". He will say that Nazi groups in America stood for the U. S. Constitution and the Flag! To further defend himself against charges of being a war criminal, he will cite examples of American "massacre" actions in Viet Nam, and will discuss treatment of enemy soldiers after the American Civil War and World Wars I and II. He will maintain that the Nurnberg trials were political trials with the idea of "crimes against humanity" simply an excuse to satisfy Jewish feelings. While sympathetic with the Jewish prisoners, he will still defend a racist Nazi view of history.

Around the room will be large pictures of Jewish dead at a death camp. A short 8mm filmloop by Thorne on **American Nazi Bundists** will be shown to illustrate the vast number of Americans who at one time were Nazi followers. After a half hour presentation by Edwards, the students will be asked to ask questions and take a final consensus vote as to whether the Nazi officer should have been found guilty, and if so what his punishment should be. The students will be given the following information sheet to react to and ask questions about during the presentation.

Resume on: Herman Schelling
Born: Halberstadt, Germany, 1914

Occupation: Former Nazi Youth Corp leader, joined the S S. in 1937, promoted to captain personally by Hitler after his participation in stopping an attempt on Hitler's life. In 1941, he was made Commander of the Crespin Concentration Camp in Baden-Baden, Germany. Over 150,000 Jewish workers were housed here, worked about 9 months in various war time industry and; physically spent, were gassed. Their clothes and valuables were sold, and their bodies were searched for gold teeth. According to official records found at the camp, the total net economic worth of each prisoner was $972.43. At the conclusion of the war, the Allies compiled the following information on the camp:

—prisoners on hand at Allies take-over	50,000
—prisoners who died within ten days due to disease or starvation	5,000

—Nazi guards executed for sadistic treatment of prisoners (Nurnberg Allies War Trials	15
—total prisoners "shot" in camp	5,000
—total prisoners "gassed" in ovens	80,000
—Jewesses used as prostitutes for guards, prison officials and visiting soldiers	900
—prisoners operated on for medical experimentation: low IQ - sterilization, radiation of female ovaries, etc.	1,643

Herman's son is here today to explain his father's actions and to defend:

TREATMENT OF PRISONERS IN MY FATHER'S CAMP WAS UNFORTUNATE, BUT HIS ACTIONS DID NOT REPRESENT ANY CRIME FOR WHICH HE SHOULD BE PUNISHED.

It is hoped that eventually this exchange of role playing programs will be expanded to include other teachers from these two schools and to involve other area schools in the program. Student involvement in such a technique is again in no way limited to questioning, discussing and debating. Those willing to undertake an independent study project could assume various roles while visiting neighboring schools. Possibilities for material are virtually unlimited, as numerous and varied as the actors imaginations. Consider the impact upon a class when confronted with a stranger appearing before them as: 1) the son of the man who dropped the atomic bomb on Hiroshima, seeking to persuade them the action was or was not justified, 2) a student from a segregated school of the South explaining his views on integration and bussing, 3) the brother of a young man who fled to Canada to escape the draft, presenting arguments for amnesty, 4) the president of a student chapter of a women's liberation organization in search of converts. These are but a few of the impersonations that might be attempted.

The positive aspects of role playing are only enhanced by this exchange of teachers and students between schools. Because classes are unaware that role playing is taking place, they have no identity barriers to overcome and are quite willing to accept as valid almost any identity the visitor assumes.

Of course this technique and suggested exchange of teachers and students is not intended to be a panacea that solves every problem a social studies teacher faces. It does seem to offer an opportunity for students and teachers to see each other in different roles. Whether they are role-playing or observing, students are offered an opportunity to experience history more intimately and with greater personal meaning than is usually the case. They can truly become involved in the class as the past moves from the domain of academic abstraction to that of reality. Although this technique must be used sparingly to be effective, it does provide one possibility for the teacher interested in finding new ways to involve his students actively in the subject matter.

AMERICAN HISTORY: REVIEWED, REVAMPED AND REVITALIZED

by Duane K. Everhart

If there are any certainties about the American educational process, one is that every student passing through the hallowed halls of secondary learning institutions will be subjected to a course entitled American History. This course will (99 and 44/100 per cent of the time) begin with the exploratory and colonization periods and proceed chronologically to however far the endurance of the teacher and the students will permit. Too often contemporary Americana will never be considered or studied because time, space and other factors conspire against it. Students under these circumstances become very blase and non-committal about the study of their country's history, finding it difficult to relate the minutiae of the past to anything meaningful in the present. Relevancy, a key word in our educational lexicon of today, does not always play much of a role in our traditional, chronological approach to American History.[1] There are signs, however, that change may be in the offing, for evidence exists that some Social Studies departments in secondary schools are reorganizing their American History programs.[2] In line with changing educational needs this seems to be highly desirable. With this in mind the Social Studies department at Hillcrest High School, District 288, Country Club Hills, Illinois, began wrestling with the problem of what to do in upgrading our American History program. It was decided that two members of the staff, Raymond Reiplinger, Jr., (MA, Indiana University) and Donald Mohar, (MA, Illinois State University) would begin working on an experimental American History course, based on a topical format with a concept-center, team-teaching and individualized instruction approach. Another staff member, Robert Pulver (BA, Drake) is also working in this program this year. I had visited West Aurora Senior High School and the Evergreen Park Demonstration Center, and Mr. Reiplinger and Mr. Mohar visited various other schools in our area (South Cook County) and from these visitations ideas were put into action. Mr. Reiplinger and Mr. Mohar constructed a course and taught it for the first time in the summer session of 1971. During the 1971-1972 school year they continued to teach this course to six sections of the Junior class, and we are using this approach this school year, 1972-1973.

This new approach to American History required no radical departure from the normal procedures of our school operation. Hill-

1. In making this statement, the author does not intend to make a blanket indictment of chronological method of teaching American History. Indeed, there are obviously many teachers who use chronology to make American History a meaningful educational experience. Still it is easy to get in a "rut" by relying on chronology and relevancy becomes sacrificed.

2. See, for example, Robert L. Dunlap, "Conceptualization: An Alternative to Chronology," **The History Teacher**, November, 1971, Vol. V, No. 1, pp. 58-60.

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crest operates on a traditional schedule with eight periods of fifty-five minutes each. The only schedule consideration that needed to be made was to program the six sections back-to-back in three separate periods and additionally to provide the instructors with a free period together for planning purposes. Moreover, the students programmed into these courses were randomly selected; we have all levels of ability, achievement and motivation represented in these experimental sections.

The schematic organization of the course is as follows: various broad topics such as Exploration and Colonization, Expansionism, Foreign Affairs (to include military and diplomatic history), Internal Political History, Social and Economic History are identified and isolated. These themes are then followed all the way through our country's history. (For example, the concept of exploration might begin with the traditional exploratory period and proceed logically to the modern day era with America's participation in the space program and its ramifications for our society. Additionally, the various economic disturbances of our country's history beginning with the Panics of 1819 and 1837 can be juxtaposed with the Great Depression of the 1930's and the recession of 1958.) The rationale for using this topical approach is to establish certain basic principles and concepts which might be applicable to different periods of our history. After an examination of a specific historical area, the theme is carried through to other related topics at later dates, hoping these basic principles and ideas can be discovered and applied. The objective is for the student to evaluate and synthesize the role of each event to other related events and therefore give them more meaning in today's world.

The course is introduced with a fast-paced slide-tape presentation entitled "What is America?" From this students identify certain themes and topics which are tied in with the overall, schematic organization. Then the study of the individual topic is begun, and an attempt is made to use a modified programmed learning approach. This is to remove the uniformity usually placed on students regardless of their interest and ability. By presenting historical materials through many different avenues the student may utilize to a greater degree that form which best serves his/her purpose. Moreover, the student may proceed at his/her own rate with teacher supervision. The student is issued a syllabus which includes all necessary assignments, guides, worksheets and outlines for a particular unit of study. The onus of responsibility is upon the student and he/she must participate in and do the various phases of the work. There is much more student involvement and hopefully this will make the course more meaningful and relevant. In this context, the role of the teacher is changed, for he is no longer simply a "giver" of information. The teacher supervises, questions, and prods the student into participation in the self-contained program that is provided for him. The course utilizes six different types of activities and the students participate in all or parts of these various activities:

1. Audio-visual — where the student uses (and creates) filmstrips, slides, audio tapes, records and video tapes.

2. Study Sessions — used to work on text-book and supplementary reading assignments, and other assignments to include study guides, work-sheets, cross-word puzzles and cryptograms.

3. Lecture Hall — used for map and chart projects, lectures and films.

4. Remedial Reading Room — this is used for students with definite reading problems — an adjusted reading program is utilized to make his assignments easier and more meaningful.

5. Library — the resource and learning center — Dial retrieval system is present for make-up work and other activities.

6. Honors Room — students work on various projects, individually and in groups — may involve research and position papers, slide-tape presentations, etc. (Students are currently working on slide-tape presentations on the Viet Name War, the American Frontier and the Plains Indians.)

The response to this program with the different types of activity has generally been quite favorable. Since this approach has been operational only for two and a half years, we have not as yet attempted a total, overall evaluation in terms of student achievement. We are in the process of drawing up some standardized instruments to measure achievement of the students in this program as opposed to students who have remained in our traditional American History classes. Through this testing program we hope to be able to draw some definite conclusions.

In conclusion, it needs to be stated that there are still many problems to be worked out in this approach. Take the students for example: as mentioned earlier the response has been generally favorable and some students really prosper in this type of program. However, others who are used to conforming to the traditional class room setting have difficulty in adjusting to this method. Additionally, the problems of administering this program and keeping it functional and operational are also rather imposing and taxing upon the teachers. Yet, while we do not have all the answers, we feel we are making some progress. The course is designed to create more interest and relevancy by having the students get more involved. We hope to instill some independence and self-discipline in the student by removing some of the normal external and internal controls and yet maintain a desired level of knowledge, competancy and understanding of American History.[3]

3. Additional ideas and information regarding different curricular approaches may be found in Martin Mayer, **Social Studies in American Schools** (New York: Harper Colophon Books, 1964), Edwin Fenton, **The New Social Studies** (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc. 1967), and Carl H. Peterson, **Effective Team Teaching** (West Nyack, New York: Parker Publishing Company, 1966).

DOING IT WITH CASES

by William P. McLemore

Student involvement is an essential ingredient in the learning process. Involved students are more interested in what they are studying. Especially so if they have opportunities to discover relationships between their studies and the "real world". In this process, an important person, along with the students, is their teacher. He can provide opportunities for students active involvement by teaching Black Americans' History with cases.

The case study method has been used in schools of business, law, and medicine. In recent years, an increasing number of teachers are using cases. Cases are a form of useful material in supplementing the inadequacies of the survey type textbook generally used in teaching United States and Black Americans' history.

Case studies in history have several noteworthy features. Fluno (1967) writes that "case studies present a small, relatively containable piece of history — a manageable target for student exploration". Cases can be used for panel discussion, reports, role playing, and debates.

Adaptability is a major advantage of cases. They can be controlled for readability, interpretation, and length. They also can be adapted for use with academic talented, average, and less gifted students. Cases allow students to "do their own thing" right in their classroom. Most of all, case preparation and analysis help develop cognitive, affective, and psychomotor skills of students.

CASING THE STUDENTS

Students are active participants in the case analysis process. This stimulates interest in the case. Learning is the more interesting, effective, and valuable as a result of active student participation. Furthermore, students' inquiry skills can be developed with cases.

Cases lend themselves to open-ended discussions and stimulate inquiry and reflective thinking. After students have read a case, discussion of its issues involves defining, hypothesizing, interpreting, conceptualizing, generalizing, and concluding. The teacher plays the role of moderator in such analysis; students must think analytically, integrate knowledge, and synthesize issues in a case. Their perspectives are broadened as they gain new insights through discovering implications, interrelationships, and results. Conflict among the ideas and values expressed by students leads participants to realize that some problems cannot be solved with quick and simple solutions.

Case discussions reveal to students their need for more information than they have in their possession. Therefore, they become

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more interested in reading assignments as avenues to obtain useful information for solving case problems. Moreover, the study of a selected subject in depth greatly contributes to discovering relationships that might otherwise go undiscovered.

Case analysis and discussion can lead students to examine their own beliefs and prejudgments. As students are forced into an adversary position, they must explain themselves clearly to other parties in the discussion. To the extent that they begin to question their own beliefs and attitudes, there is the possibility that they may alter their position and, subsequently, their overt behavior.

ACTING ON BLACK HISTORY CASES

Studying Black History with cases offers unique opportunities for actively involving students. They can prepare Black History cases. One source of case material is popular magazines. Students can use historical articles in those magazines to write cases. For example, they could write cases from articles in **Ebony, Essence, Black World, Jet** and **Tuesday Magazine.** I have found that students enjoy learning Black History with popular magazines. They are useful for reports and preparation of cases.

Before preparing the cases, the class should decide on its objectives, procedures and time limit for case preparation. The objectives should be listed and discussed. Then the class should decide on the learning activities that best enables them to accomplish their objectives. That is, the class decides the name, number, and function of their specialized learning tasks; groups may be research, music, clothing and art. Volunteers may serve as members of learning group that interest them. For example, students who are interested in music, clothing and art should join the learning group that has in its objectives one of those areas. They can locate information and prepare background materials. Besides that, art students could make some drawings depicting life in that period. Also, students who like to sew could make some clothes for themselves representing that period. They could make cloth or paper clothes. Likewise, students who are singers and musicians could learn some songs of that period.

After the learning groups have completed their tasks, the whole class could re-assemble for case analysis. At that time, students could wear the clothes they made representing the case period. Background information could be presented by art, business, industrial arts and other students who researched areas of interest to them. A newspaper article about news of the period could be read by a journalism student. Also, art work of the period, by art students, could be displayed in sections of the room. In addition, music students could reveal the mood of the period in songs. This learning environment helps students get the "feel" of the case period they are studying.

In this environment, the prepared cases could be analyzed. A number of class members could assume roles as principal people in the case. They could enact the case's main parts. Other students

could assume roles as members of the general public. Together, the members of the general public and the principal people analyze the case issues. They could be analyzed in a historical setting and compared with today's societal issues.

In all this activity, what is the teacher's role? The teacher is a consultant and coordinator of learning experiences. He facilitates students learning independently as well as in small and large groups. Moreover, at the culmination of the case preparation, presentation, and analysis the teacher helps the students assess how well they attained their objectives. After they have completed their assessment, they would have cased "the whole thing".

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YOU ARE YOUR OWN ENVIRONMENT

Noel F. McInnis

> There is a colossal disparity between the way in which most individuals experience their own existence, and the way in which the individual is described in such sciences as biology, ecology, and physiology. The nub of the difference is this: the way the individual is described in these sciences is not as a freely moving entity within an environment, but as a process of behavior which **is** the environment also. If you will accurately describe what any individual organism is doing, you will take but a few steps before you are also describing what the environment is doing. To put it more simply, we can do without such expressions as 'what the individual is doing' or 'what the environment is doing,' as if the individual was one thing and the doing another, the environment one thing and its doing another. If we reduce the whole business simply to the process of doing, then the doing, which was called the behavior of the individual, is found to be **at the same time** the doing which is called the behavior of the environment. In other words, it is quite impossible to describe the movement of my arm except in relation to the rest of my body and to the background against which you perceive it. The relations in which you perceive this movement are the absolutely necessary condition for your perceiving at all. More and more, a 'field theory' of man's behavior becomes necessary for the sciences. (Watts, 1963)

Never before has a new subject of study been embraced by schools at all levels as rapidly as our most recent addition to the curriculum: the environment. In few schools was the environment considered an important subject for study in 1969. Yet now, only three years later, what educator would dare to pronounce the environment an unimportant subject?

Environmental curriculum materials now proliferate at such a rate that they rival the Sunday **New York Times** as a clear and present danger to our dwindling forests. Environmental curricula are being reproduced at a geometric rate not unlike that of human beings. The environment is definitely in, as far as education is concerned. But the Earth is not necessarily better off as a result.

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It is too soon to draw conclusions, but what currently passes for "environmental" education **could** turn out to be little else than one more massive assault on nature. The tip-off to this possibility is our continued reference to "**the** environment." There is no such thing as **the** environment. We will continue to have serious environmental problems as long as humans persist in viewing nature in such monolithic terms.

As long as we continue to relate to our world as **the** environment, we continue to separate ourselves from the rest of nature; and it is our perceived separateness from nature that has given rise to our current environmental crises in the first place. To the extent that "environmental" education fails to alter such perceptions, it merely makes our environmental problems worse. It does so by creating the illusion that it is helping us solve these problems, when in fact it is actually helping us to perpetuate them.

Environment can be understood only as an all-pervading system of mutually sustaining influences. Environmental understanding is possible only if we begin with an operational definition of environment which can be applied to every system of interrelationships in the universe. Such a definition exists: **an environment is anything which influences or is being influenced by something else.** (Monane, 1970).

This definition of environment enables us to circumvent three prevailing stumbling blocks to effective environmental education: 1) the assumption that there is such an entity as **the** environment; 2) the assumption that "environment" refers primarily to that class of phenomena to which we direct our attention when we study ecology; and 3) the assumption that education is automatically environmental when we direct our attention to ecological subject matter.

Again, there is no such thing as **the** environment. There are **many** environments. Ecology enables us to understand some of our environments. But so do psychology, mathematics, and poetry. Every subject in every school is about environment. No subject, as subject, is more environmental than any of the others, it merely relates to a distant sub-system of mutually sustaining influences. Each discipline focuses on some environments, but its insights bear on all environments. **Each door to understanding is a door to the universe.** The possibility that ecologists can tell us more about some environments than the social scientist, the mathematician, or the poet, does not mean that ecological studies are more environmental than psychology, mathematics, and poetry. The latter studies are also environmental. Or, more accurately, they **could** be. The sad fact is that, at least in our schools, few if any studies are environmental. The sadder fact is that even the so-called "environmental" subjects taught in our schools, i.e. "ecology" and "biology," are seldom truly environmental. The saddest fact is that the word "environmental" has been perceived almost exclusively as an adjective, describing things, rather than as an adverb, describing activity.

The term "environmental" is more correctly perceived as descriptive of procedure than as descriptive of subject matter. I can teach

dialogically, facilitating a process of mutually sustaining influences among myself-and-my-students, no matter what my subject matter. Or, I can teach the most ecological subject matter via a monologue which prevents any mutually sustaining influences from developing among myself-and-my-students, other than the absolutely minimal one: I get my pay and they get their grade. In the former case I am engaging in environmental education. In the latter case I am perpetuating the gross environmental predicaments now facing our species: I am separating myself from the environment by forcing my students to relate to me as if I were **the** environment rather than one environment among many.

Most of what currently passes for "environmental" education is **about** environment, for sure. But little of it is any more environmental than any of our other education, **all** of which is also **about** environment. What presently passes for "environmental" education is seldom experienced environmentally, by either teacher or student. The subject matter is new, but the way it is taught and learned remains as oblivious to actual environmental dynamics as ever. Despite the rapid embrace of "environmental" education in the past few years by schools at all levels, the education offered by most schools is no more environmental in 1972 than it was in 1969.

Environmental education does not come in a curricular package. Like all environmental phenomena, it happens in a place. When you are a teacher, it happens (or does not happen) in your classroom. It happens most effectively in those classrooms where procedure reflects the understanding that each member of the class is an environment, the teacher included.

Think about that for a moment. Can you cite any instance between the moment of your conception and the present when you were not influencing or being influenced by something else? Of course not. Can you imagine any situation between the present moment and the moment you die when you will not influence or be influenced by some thing else? Of course not. Obviously, **you** are an environment.

As you read this, you are one of my environments and I am one of yours. When you enter the classroom, you are one—but **only** one—of your students' immediate environments. They, in turn, represent several different environments of you. When was the last time you related with your students as if this were true? When did you last learn **with** them rather than teach **at** them? When were they last enabled to **teach with you**, rather than learn at you?

So far, this critique has overlooked one major difficulty: as teachers, it is difficult to give what we do not have. We cannot suddenly begin to teach the way we are told to teach, however much we may want to. We often cannot even teach the way we were taught to teach. We can only teach the way we were taught, and few of us were taught environmentally.

Nevertheless, we are not hopelessly destined to perpetuate only those processes that shaped our own behavior. For while we cannot get there from here, we can begin. One can begin to be an environmental educator in many ways. The following suggestions have the advantage of adaptability to many subject matters.

The essence of environmental understanding is embodied in two propositions:

1. YOU ARE AN ENVIRONMENT, BUT NEVER **THE** ENVIRONMENT.
2. YOU ARE YOUR OWN ENVIRONMENT.

These propositions can be elaborated as follows.

1. YOU ARE AN ENVIRONMENT . . . Put yourself, and your students, in your environment's shoes. Ask your students to forget for a while that they are themselves, and to imagine with you that each is his respective environment. The more diverse their range of environmental identifications, from immediate surroundings to the whole planet, the more effective this exercise will be. Give them sufficient time to reflect before they respond.

This reversal of conventional perceptions essentially requires you and your students to view people as the world's environment rather than to view the world as people's environment. It still assumes the fiction of people and environment as separate entities, but if the exercise is done at sufficient length and with sufficient depth, the assumption will certainly be called (or callable) into question.

Each of you, now role-playing his environment, should tell the others what people have done to you in the past and what people are doing to you at present. This exploration should go on at considerable length, engaging as many participants as possible. In addition to role-playing your larger environment, you should also role-play numerous of its specific components: animals, plants, rivers, streets, buildings, etc.

This exercise lends itself to research projects as well as classroom discussion. In this case, as in all other applications of the exercise, your concern should be less with the accuracy of particular observations than with maintaining the reversed viewpoint long enough that the students begin to see **themselves** from this new perspective. Each student should ultimately reflect at length on how **his** environment has been and is being affected by **him.** Throughout this exercise, students should frequently be asked how they (their environment) respond to what people are doing to them. Why do they respond that way?

Following the reversed perspectives exercise, ask your students to define the word "environment." They will undoubtedly attempt to define it in static terms, as an entity. Of course there is no way to adequately define "environment" as an entity, because you either leave something(s) out or you become so all-inclusive that you have no basis for discrimination.

When your students have become aware that environment includes everything, but that "everything" defines nothing, suggest that they try to define environment not in terms of "what" but in terms of "when" and "how." Choose some of the entities with which they have attempted to define "environment." When are these entities

environments? How are they environments? What happens that makes us identify something as an environment?

As your students tackle the question "when is an environment?" they will arrive at a definition similar to the one cited above: an environment is anything which influences or is being influenced by something else. It is when your students have come to understand environment in this operational sense that they are prepared to understand themselves as environments.

The concept of the self as an environment has scarcely been explored in Western thought, so your students may find it a strange proposition. Again, the questions "when" and "how" will be most helpful. You and your students should examine at length, and in specific terms, the questions "when am I an environment?" and "how am I an environment?" Or in other words, "When and how am I influenced by and influential toward other environments, including other selves?"

. . . BUT NEVER **THE** ENVIRONMENT. You are now ready to explore the question, "When are environments threatened?" Again, this question should be pursued at length, with reference to as many environments as possible. No matter which environments you consider, it will become clear that an environment is threatened when one — **any** one — of its other environments attempts to subdue it, or when it attempts to subdue another environment. In other words, when any environment acts as if it were **the** environment, or is treated as if it were **the** environment, an environmental crisis is at hand.

Your students have an excellent opportunity to see themselves as environments while discussing environmental threats. Numerous parallels can be drawn between the way they said they responded to threats from people while playing the role of their environments, and the way they actually respond to threats from people when they are being themselves.

If your students have not yet seen the fallacy in treating one's self as separate from one's other environments, they will when you ask each of them to decide **whose** environment he is. Is he his parents' environment? Not entirely. Is he your environment? Not entirely. Is he the school's environment? Not entirely. He is not entirely anybody's or anything's environment. He is the environment of everybody and everything that influences him. Some people/things have a continuing influence, others have only an intermittent or perhaps a single influence on him. But any person or thing or idea that he is aware of has an influence on him, at least to the extent of impinging on his awareness. He is also the environment of everybody and everything upon which he has an influence. Again, any person, thing, or idea that he is aware of is influenced by him, at least to the extent of being defined by his awareness of it. (The fact that he is influenced by and has influence upon numerous people and things of which he is not aware also deserves exploration.)

When your students understand the multiplicity of environmental influences, ask them another question: "name one thing which you

influence that has no influence on you." The impossibility of this task reveals the mutuality of all influence: we are influenced by everything upon which we have an influence.

Finally, ask your students "what one thing do all of your environments have in common?" The answer will soon be discovered: themselves. Hence the answer to the original question about **whose** environment you are. **You are your own environment.**

You are your own environment. Which means that while you are distinct within it, you are not separate from it. Which means that what you do to your environment you do to yourself and vice versa. Which means that your environment doesn't happen **to** you, it happens **with** you, and you with it. Which means that your environment becomes as you are, and that you become as your environments are.

You are your own environment. The one thing all of your environments have in common is you. Whatever you seek therein, what you find is yourself. Carl Sandburg (1936) made all of this clear in a few words of judgment pronounced by a Kansas sodbuster:

> He leaned at the gatepost and studied the horizon and figured what corn might do next year and tried to calculate why God ever made the grasshopper and why two days of hot winds smother the life out of a stand of wheat and why there was such a spread between what he got for grain and the price quoted in Chicago and New York. Drove up a newcomer in a covered wagon: "What kind of folks live around here?" Well, stranger, what kind of folks was there in the country you come from?" "Well, they was mostly a lowdown, lying, thieving, gossiping, backbiting lot of people." "Well, I guess, stranger, that's about the kind of folks you'll find around here." And the dusty gray stranger had just about blended into the dusty gray cottonwoods in a clump on the horizon when another newcomer drove up: "What kind of folks live around here?" "Well, stranger, what kind of folks was there in the country you come from?" "Well, they was mostly a decent, hard-working, lawabiding, friendly lot of people." "Well, I guess, stranger, that's about the kind of folks you'll find around here."

In the context of the foregoing, environmental education can be defined in two sentences: How much influence do your students have on you? You have no more than that on them.

December, 1971

1. Alan W. Watts, "The Individual As Man/World," **The Psychedelic Review**, 1 (1) :55-65, June, 1963. Reprinted in Paul Shepard and Daniel McKinley, **The Subversive Science: Essays Toward an Ecology of Man** (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1969) pp. 139-148.
2. Joseph Monane, "'Inner' and 'Outer': Toward a Viable Concept of Environment in Human Ecology," paper delivered at the American Association for the Advancement of Science meeting, Chicago, December 27, 1970. Dr. Monane is in the Department of Anthropology, University of Hawaii, Hilo, Hawaii.
3. Carl Sandburg, **The People, Yes** (New York: Harcourt, Brace & Company, 1936), p. 120.

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SOCIO-ECONOMIC ASPECTS OF BUDGETING IN THE FAMILY

A Curriculum Project Prepared by
Galen Berrier, Ray Cipriano, and Ray Coleman

1. **DESCRIPTION:**

   a. **Materials Developed:** The State of Illinois requires by law the teaching of several topics in consumer education in high school. For various reasons, Township High School District 214 elected **not** to require all students to take a one-semester consumer economics course in order to fulfill this requirement, but instead to incorporate this material in a variety of other courses elected by most students. One of these courses is sociology, a one-year course elected by approximately 70% of the seniors in the district. At the same time, it is our intention that, insofar as possible, this material not be merely "tacked on" but that it be fully integrated into the course. For this reason, we have included, together with simulations and activities involving budgeting and the consumer, readings and a field survey in this area which incorporate the sociological method.

   b. **Composition of Student Population:** District 214 is a newly developed and rapidly growing suburban area northwest of Chicago. Its students are white, middle class, from largely white collar homes (and some blue collar), with upward social mobility.

   c. **School Organizations:** District 214, with seven high schools and over 17,000 students, is the largest high school district in Illinois outside the City of Chicago. An eighth high school is scheduled to open in the fall of 1973. Most high schools are organized with a division of social studies and foreign language, but two of the older high schools are organized with separate departments and department heads in each area. Curriculum is developed primarily by classroom teachers, with some assistance from department chairmen or division heads and from instructional coordinators in the Central Office. Most schools have an 8-period day; periods range in length from 48 to 55 minutes.

2. **BEHAVIORAL OBJECTIVES:**

   a. Given a stipulated annual income and the task of preparing a budget for a couple living together, the student will be able, within 30 minutes, to construct a workable budget which includes the categories "food", "clothing", "shelter", "transportation", "insurance", "medical care", "entertainment", "recreation", and "travel'.

   b. Given a stipulated annual income and the budget categories

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listed above, the student will be able, within one class period, to construct a workable budget for a family of four in which spending is equal to or less than the budget allotment.

c. Given a reading of six case studies, the student will be able, within 30 minutes, to write a short paper at least two paragraphs in length, describing and analyzing the relationship between the poor person and the merchant, and accounting for this relationship.

d. Given the same six case studies, the student will be able, within a class period, to arrive inductively at a testable statement of the hypothesis that the poor do, in fact, pay more for goods and services.

e. Given the hypothesis referred to above, the students will arrive at a consensus that some form of descriptive survey, including such categories as cost of apartments, food in supermarkets, television sets, automobile finance charges, and automobile insurance, is an appropriate method for testing it.

f. Given the descriptive survey method referred to above, the students will arrive at a consensus that the independent variables are a northwest suburban community and an inner city ghetto community in the Chicago metropolitan area, and the dependent variable is the prices charged in each community.

g. Given a one-day field trip, the students will be able to gather accurate data on the variables listed above — at least three cases in each category — to test the validity of the hypothesis.

h. Given the data referred to above, the students will be able to represent the data clearly and meaningfully in tabular or graphic form.

i. Given the data referred to above, the students will be able to draw inferences from the tables or graphs supporting or refuting their original hypotheses, and will also be able to restate and refine their hypotheses accordingly.

j. Given a short reading summarizing the study by David Caplovitz, **The Poor Pay More** (New York, 1963), the student will be able to recognize and account for any discrepancies between this study and their own research, through either a five-minute oral report or a two-paragraph paper.

k. Given a standard installment loan contract, the student will be able, within one class period, to identify the true annual rate of interest.

l. Given a list of ten hypothetical situations in which a consumer might use credit, the student will be able to identify those situations in which it would be advantageous for the consumer to do so.

3. **MATERIALS TO BE USED:**

a. **Newlyweds' Budget:** Given an annual income of $8,000, each student is asked to budget for the necessities of life — food,

clothing, shelter, transportation, insurance, medical care, etc. — and the amenities, such as entertainment, recreation, and travel — for a husband and wife with no children (alternative: the "swinger's budget" for those who do not anticipate marriage immediately after graduation).

b. **Budgeting Game:** (For teams of 4: $2.95 each; Changing Times Education Service, 1729 H Street, N. W., Washington, D. C. 20006.) Students simulate a middle-income family of four earning $15,000. They must decide how to spend their money over a twelve-month period. The objective is to keep family spending equal to or less than the budget allotment. In this way students learn the families make different choices about spending and saving, depending on their way of living, their needs and wants, their interests, likes and dislikes, hobbies, and family goals. (Playing time, 2-4 hours)

c. **SRSS Episodes in Social Inquiry Series**, "The Incidence and Effects of Poverty in the United States", especially pages 44-46, "Do the Poor Pay More?" Six case studies selected from a study of one hundred Harlem families.

d. Field Project: Classes will be divided into two groups to survey both a northwest suburban community and a Chicago ghetto community for prices of apartments, food in supermarkets, television sets and other small appliances, automobile financing charges, and automobile insurance.

e. **The Sociological Method**, by Stephen Cole, pp. 66-72, for illustrations of how to tabulate data and also for a summary of the study by David Caplovitz, **The Poor Pay More** (New York: The Free Press of Glencoe 1963.)

f. **Consumer Game:** (For teams of 11-34; $25.00 each; Academic Games Assoc.; 430 East 33rd Street, Baltimore, Maryland 21218). Consumer involves the players in the problems and economics of installment buying. The purpose of the exercise is to teach students how to calculate true interest rates, how to negotiate contracts with credit managers, and the problems and economics of budgeting and buying. Participants assume the roles of consumers, credit agents, and store owners. Consumers compete to get maximum pleasure from their purchase and minimum credit charges; credit agents compete for the best terms to the most people. Decisions must be made on what, whether, and when to buy goods; whether and when to use credit; creditors must decide to whom and under what terms to give credit. (Playing time, 2-6 hours)

4. HOW STRUCTURE OF MATERIAL IS DESIGNED TO ACCOMPLISH OBJECTIVES:

Wiseman and Aron, **Field Projects for Sociology Students** (Cambridge, Mass., 1970), describe such techniques as observation (pp. 15-18), the descriptive survey (pp. 37-41), the explanatory

survey and multivariate analysis (pp. 167-170), and steps for the attitude survey (pp. 182-184). Observational, descriptive, and explanatory sociological survey criteria will be used to evaluate the effectiveness of the behavioral objectives, particularly "e" through "i".

Students will be engaged in the making and implementing of a sociological survey. These techniques will test the hypothesis, "Do the poor pay more?" Examination of five economic categories is the specific task of two survey teams. The teams will be divided into two groups; each will gather data in a specific designated area.

Sample copies of the survey form and charts are attached.

5. **SAMPLE EXERCISE:**

a. Contrast and compare the results of the survey, using charts and graphs.

b. Explain the variations and casual relationships among the categories in the survey.

c. Explain the discrepancies in data that do **not** support the hypotheses. Why?

d. Rewrite and revise your hypothesis or create a new hypothesis to support your findings. How and why do your conclusions support the data and other readings you have researched on this topic?

e. What is your evaluation of this project based on information gathered from the readings and survey you have conducted?

f. How would you change the economic system to help the poor pay only their fair share?

g. Are you aware of any ideas that might alleviate the suffering of the poor, even though they are **not** productive in the market system?

h. The United States is the richest country in the world — its G.N.P. totalled over one trillion dollars last year and the standard of living is highest in the world — so why **can't** American society eradicate the conditions of the poor?

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CHICAGO INNER CITY — NORTHWEST SUBURBS SURVEY

NO. 1	1.) Place	Cost	Other Info.	2.) Place	Cost	Other Info.	3.) Place	Cost	Other Info.
Apartment 3 Rooms (1 Bedroom, L.R. & Kit.)			• Variables Quality of Apart-ment						
Color Television Motorola 19-inch Portable									
Auto Insurance $100 Deductible Min. Liability Medical Coverage Uninsured Driver			• Inter-mediate Sedan						
Auto Financing New Car Used Car 1 Year 2 Year			• Bank or Dealer						
Food Detergent (Regular Size)									
Meat									
Produce									
Dairy									

SUMMARY OF APARTMENTS SURVEY

NO. 2	Northwest Suburbs	Chicago Inner City	
Total Number of Surveys			
Average Cost Per Month			
Variables - Differences In Quality			Air Conditioning Carpeting Size (Larger) Utilities: Heat Electricity Phone Gas Water Appearance New/Modern Old/Traditional Nearness to: Transportation Expressways Schools Church

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SUMMARY OF AUTO SURVEY - INSURANCE

NO. 3	Northwest Suburbs	Chicago Inner City	
Auto Insurance			
$100 Deductible			
$ 50 Deductible			
Liability			
_____			
Medical Coverage			
Uninsured Driver			
Comprehensive			
Average Cost Per Month			
Variables - Differences			

SUMMARY OF AUTO SURVEY - FINANCING

NO. 4	Northwest Suburbs	Chicago Inner City	
Auto Financing			
Bank			
Auto Dealer			
1 Year			
2 Year			
New			
Used			
Average Cost Per Month			
Variables - Differences			

SUMMARY OF FOOD SURVEY

NO. 5	Northwest Suburbs	Chicago Inner City	
Food			
Meat			
Produce			
Detergent (Regular Size)			
Dairy			
Average Cost Per Month			
Variables - Differences			

LOOKING FORWARD TO THE PAST

Pilot Programs In High School Archaeology

by Robert Stelton

In our efforts as teachers and as educators to make education and learning more significant for our students[1] we seem to share a common search for new methods and approaches to achieve valid objectives and goals. Considering broadly the perimeters of the affective domain, it is not an unsound approach to learning to put students in simulated situations or better yet into situations in which clearly identifiable goals can be achieved by active participation in problem solving. We are, unfortunately, all too often constrained by the geography of the classroom, the school calendar, or simply by budgetary restrictions, and extensive and meaningful field experience perishes for lack of nurishment or encouragement.

I would like to propose one possible solution to some difficulties in meeting this enigma. The idea is not new, but perhaps the approach is one that has never really been considered. Quite simply I suggest the creation of a teacher directed consortium in which the many interests and skills of teachers could be utilized by students of many schools in situations free of traditional classroom instruction.

As a pilot project and model, I submit the example of the archaeological dig called EXPEDITION I which was in the field in 1972 and the plans for similar archaeological digs for 1973. Integral to this type of project is the association of student and teacher working together in the solution of an agreed upon problem. EXPEDITION I sought to do what was within its means in conserving a nonrenewable resource.

The Problem of Environmental Rape

Slated for total destruction sometime in 1976 or sooner by the Central Illinois Light Company is an area in north central Illinois of 8,800 acres. Within that area are a minimum of forty pre-Columbian habitation sites — some dating back as early as 4,000 or even 5,000 B.C.

Destruction has been necessitated by projected plans for the construction of a new power plant, strip mining, and the creation of a vast reservoir of water required for cooling the generators. The impending power crunch leaves little doubt that before 1977

(1) I suppose in one sense I am suggesting that we are reexamining the relevance of our curricula and course content. I cannot bring myself to use the word relevant, however, because of the debasement this otherwise fine concept has been subjected to.

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Persons desiring to participate in the Orendorf dig are urged to contact Lawrence A. Conrad, Department of Anthropology, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin, or Robert Stelton, Morgan Park Academy, 2153 W. 111th Street, Chicago, Illinois 60643.

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the area as the focus of the most important remaining and unexplored archaeological site will be destroyed. Work had begun in 1972.

Prior to 1972 archaeological site locations revealed forty sites in this area. Insofar as no systematic survey of the area has ever been carried out, the count of forty must be regarded as a conservative one. Experience and knowledge of other sites indicates quite clearly the desirability of the area as a place for pre-historic occupation. Furthermore, among the forty sites disclosed was one of signal importance. This, the Orendorf village site, approximately thirty miles south of Peoria, covered an area from fifteen to thirty acres. It is one of eight known regional temple towns in the central Illinois River valley. Critical for Illinois archaeology has been the fact that the other seven temple town sites have either been partially or completely destroyed without the benefit of scientific investigation.

Approaches to the Problem

In 1971 Lawrence A. Conrad, Department of Anthropology, University of Wisconsin, laid plans for attacking the problem. He initiated his program for salvaging the site during the summer of 1972, and the modest successes of that dig became the badge of honor and achievement for EXPEDITION I and the students who worked to salvage the site.

While working with Conrad in 1971, we drew up plans for a pilot project that would incorporate younger students as active volunteers. If the use of younger volunteers on an archaeological dig is not an original idea, the temerity of bringing young students into an important part of a major dig may be without parallel.

Conrad was later to admit, long after the 1972 dig had ended, that twice he had doubts regarding the decision to work with high school students. The first time was just after we had decided to organize the program, but a more serious doubt faced him with the arrival of more than twenty hyperactive teenagers jostling and bouncing around on the bus that carried them to the dig site!

Initial doubts reasserted themselves as the first few days bumbled along. But as the group learned what was expected of them and as work progressed, the value of the contribution of young students became clearer. Without the help of EXPEDITION I, as the group of students came to be called, Conrad's work at Orendorf in 1972 would have been a success. How do you evaluate the efforts of twenty-five people for a period of two weeks? A modest estimate adds up to 2000 man hours of work at the Orendorf and Clayberg sites.[2]

Organizing One Solution

EXPEDITION I was presented to high school students of the Chicago area as a **bona fide** scientific archaeological dig. It was made clear to students that this was not to be a summer lark. Conversations with teaching colleagues at other schools resulted in enthusiastic promotion, and a group of students numbering twenty-two was ultimately recruited from six separate schools. In all, the

(2) Clayberg, a nearby Early Woodland site, was excavated entirely by EXPEDITION I.

group included one middle school student, several ninth graders, a cluster of tenth and eleventh graders, four graduating seniors, and two post graduates. The total number participating was twenty-four with numbers divided almost evenly between boys and girls.

Mounting an expedition, like the one under consideration, is not without its difficulties. Transportation, housing, board, chaperonage, not to mention the legal ramifications — including innumerable waivers, all had to be considered. Yet these problems, many of which often seemed capable of destroying the project were solved somehow by D (departure) Day.

Cost, initially estimated at $100 per volunteer for two weeks, actually was closer to $52, and the difference was refunded. While no salaries nor honorariums were paid, EXPEDITION I did contribute $100 to the Orendorf Salvage Fund. Volunteers were never allowed to forget the purpose of the operation, and standards of an academically justifiable field experience were rigidly adhered to. Thus it was easy to defend rewarding of credit, advanced standing, or special recognition on the students' records.

Conclusions

EXPEDITION I proved to be a program that offered rewards of many sorts. It provided everyone with an opportunity for serious anthropological work — work that was not classroom oriented. It removed a group of students from the unnatural restrictions and limitations of the classroom enabling them to actively participate in the environmental crisis in a role other than that of a contributor. Finally, but certainly not the least important of reasons, it presented a wholesome and enjoyable activity for a group of young adults.

But for all of the pedagogical reasons and justifications for EXPEDITION I, the exacting scientific achievement and contribution made by these students in the series of excavations carried out at the prehistoric Middle Mississippian town, now known as the Orendort site, during the summer of 1972 must not be overlooked. Participants carried away with them a sense of real achievement and success, and this more than any other reason became for them the ultimate value of the dig.

Organized to rescue as much information as possible before the destruction of the site by strip mining in 1976, the project was an unqualified success from an archaeologist's point of view. More than 4,000 square feet of occupation area was cleared revealing thirteen public buildings and private dwellings and sixty pit features of various types, including storage rubbish pits, hide smoking pits, hearths and a huge post pit. Thousands of potsherds as well as numerous animal bones, stones, bone and wood tools were collected in addition to C^{14}, archaeomagnetic, dendrochronological, pollen, and floral samples.

The excavation, which consisted of a ten foot wide trench running for 400 feet across the site, indicated that the site was organized along the same lines as the more famous Cahokia village farther south and east of St. Louis. Excavations indicated that the village consisted of a plaza 100 feet in diameter with a large post in the

center and houses all around. After the town had been deserted, Indian farmers returned to plant corn on the rich rubbish heaps and to build houses on the hard packed grassy plaza. As the artifacts and materials of the 1972 dig are definitively analyzed, it is hoped that a pattern will emerge which can provide a better explanation of this phase of the Spoon River Mississippian culture and the environment of the central Illinois Valley at that time.

Recommendations

EXPEDITION I cleared the way for EXPEDITION II which will be mounted in 1973. Tentative plans have been completed. However, what "happened" in 1972 must and should be more carefully worked out for 1973. Students who ask — "But what can I do?" — must be presented with opportunities for real participation. All too frequently we provide them with problems that they cannot relate to their lives. Under such circumstances, problems so evident to the teacher are non-problems for the student. EXPEDITION I shows, in part, that relevance can be a reality rather than a "copout."

Those of us associated with the archaeological salvage work at the Orendorf site welcome participation of students and teachers. Details can be secured from the author of this report. But Expeditions I and II should be regarded as models. What seems most important is the creation of a consortium of like-minded teachers who when working with students during the summer months can achieve learning of a distinct kind. Perhaps it seems patently idealistic or improbable for teachers to work together in such a fashion. Nevertheless it seems worthwhile to sound a bell and to watch for the response.

PROJECT 18: A CASE STUDY IN SOCIAL STUDIES CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

John R. Madden

The Twenty-sixth Amendment enfranchised approximately 11.5 million people under the age of 21, and by so doing generated a debate over the potential influence of this large block of young voters. One might reasonably expect, because of the greater number of 18-year olds completing high school in recent years, that the potential 18-year old voter would be a more effective citizen than his counterpart, say, 25 years ago. This is assuming, of course, that citizenship education has had a positive effect in those intervening years. Research conducted by Langton and Jennings casts doubt on this assumption; they indicate that perhaps the high school civics curriculum is not even a minor source of political socialization.[1] This may be because, as several studies in recent years have suggested, students' political attitudes have already been formed by the time they reach high school. It may also be due, however, to the nature of the high school civics curriculum; as Langton and Jennings point out, "the high school civics courses to which students are exposed offer little that is new to them, . . . they simply provide another layer of information which is essentially rebundant."[2]

Dr. John J. Patrick, a co-director of a citizenship education project at Indiana University, points out part of the problem with civic education courses when he writes, "lofty goals and deficient practices have distinguished civic education in American schools. Civic education has lacked a clear focus and a tightly-knit conceptual framework . . . . Recent studies reveal an enormous gap between content of civics instruction and knowledge about politics . . . ."[3] The National Assessment in Citizenship Education, conducted by the Education Commission of the States in 1970, documents the notion that many Americans lack knowledge about government, politics, and strategies of effective political activity.[4]

The passage of the Twenty-sixth Amendment provides social studies educators with both a tremendous responsibility and an enviable challenge. The time lag between a student's graduation from high school and the occasion of his twenty-first birthday made voter education in secondary school, heretofore, somewhat remote from the student's immediate concerns. The Twenty-sixth Amendment, however, has made this a very timely objective. We are thus provided another opportunity to inject into our social studies curriculum a current and real dimension and thereby address ourselves to some of the most persistent and widespread student criticisms of the social studies curriculum. The immediacy of student involvement in the political process requires that we respond with a program that will make student entry into the political system both exciting and meaningful. Project 18 is such a program. It offers a clear alternative to the traditional civics course, for its focus is on

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practical politics at the local and state levels. No attempt is made to teach morality, the "oughts" of the democratic system. No attempt is made to teach the structure of the government without teaching the use to which a knowledge of structure of government can be put. The theme behind the course is involvement. The only value the course attempts to teach is the importance of an active, concerned citizenry for the successful working of the democratic process.

Background

Project 18 had its beginning about two years ago when the League of Women Voters of Pennsylvania decided to lobby for the development of a practical course in politics which could be offered to Pennsylvania students. The combined efforts of the League the Pennsylvania Department of Education, the Pennsylvania Department of Community Affairs, and the Lower Merion School District came to fruition when the course, "Project 18: Effectively Influencing Political Decisions," was piloted in fourteen schools across the state in the fall 1972 semester.

The consortium idea was formalized with the creation of the Project 18 Advisory Board which represented, in addition to the sponsoring agencies, students, faculty, and parents. The Advisory Board was active throughout the project, and its influence permeates the entire course.

Advice on practical political knowledge was also solicited from practicing politicians and "movers and shakers" at the local and state government levels. Several members of the community provided not only knowledge, advice, and support, but logistical aid as well and the benefit of far-ranging contacts among political leaders. The project benefited a great deal from this kind of broad-based community involvement.

Course Objectives

The objectives established for Project 18 might best be illustrated by the following questions for which the course seeks to provide answers:

(1) Do the students feel that they have the power to influence political decisions?

(2) Can the students demonstrate a practical knowledge of the structure and function of local, county, and state governmental units (e.g., can they apply such knowledge in solving practical political problems)?

(3) Do the students have a knowledge of practical political skills which could be used in attempting to influence political decision-makers?

(4) Given a political issue, are the students able to devise strategies for practical political action?

(5) Do the students have a knowledge of democratic political processes and the role of the citizen therein (e.g., how

political decisions are made, the role of political parties, election and voting processes, etc.)?

(6) Are the students able to explain the relationship between social factors (e.g., culture, socialization processes, socio-economic status, sex, race, ethnicity, etc.) and political attitudes and behavior?

Course Overview

To provide the students with opportunities to learn information and skills which would allow them to answer the above questions, the pilot course is divided into the six sections described below. The teacher is provided with a **Teacher's Manual** and a **Teacher Resource Book** which contains all the printed student materials as well as background readings. A **Student Resource Book** is provided for each pupil.

I. **Politics: Who Gets What and How**

This first section is designed to introduce the students to politics. Rather than have them simply read about such things as the purpose of government (frequently the first chapter in civics texts), the students participate in the simulation "Section" which requires them to take on roles of political actors in the real world.[5] The purpose of this activity is to provide a common political-like experience which contains a relatively high degree of realism and from which the students can formulate their own ideas of what constitutes political activity. The important characteristics of political activity upon which the students concentrate during the debriefing session are power relationships, methods of exerting influence, and political behavior. The students must then apply these ideas to a new situation; given a case study which they have not previously read, they are asked to identify the source of conflict, the power relationships that exist, and the methods of bargaining used.

A video taped "news special" has been produced to accompany the simulation. This "white paper" style report focuses student attention on the overall problems faced by the state of Midland and the particular needs of each of its five sections as these are perceived by key citizens from each area. The tape includes graphics and slides which illustrate conditions being described by the actors.

II. **The Citizen's Role in Government: Exercises in Practical Political Action**

Having now gotten a taste of politics, the students are required in Section II to come to grips with a political issue which is real and important to them. The major course project begins with this series of lessons — the students are asked to develop a strategy for influencing decisions that bear on a political issue which is of interest to them. The strategy, which is due at the end of Section V, may very well be a cooperative effort; it is to include a problem statement, explanations of several tactics which the students would employ and their anticipated consequences, and a description of at least one tactic that was considered but rejected and a brief explanation of why it was discarded.

Rather than providing the students with a list of political problems and requiring them to choose one as a target for their strategies, the students identify political issues which they in fact perceive as real. This is done through a "problem census" activity as described by Epstein.[6] The issue a student selects provides a framework for organizing much of the information he will be expected to learn in subsequent sections of the course.

The problem census involves a community resource person to help clarify and further detail issues in terms of the specific local area. The community resource person also provides a liaison with the community, coordinates outside speakers, and identifies community members who might provide students with information and advice on particular issues. For pilot purposes, Leagues of Women Voters located in pilot school areas selected one of their number to function in this capacity.

Following the problem census, the students deal with the notion of political tactics, a knowledge of which will be useful in designing their strategies.

III. The Structure and Function of American Political Institutions (State and Local)

This section is approximately six weeks in length and has its core a series of case studies taken from political science literature on state and local government. The readings have been adapted for use by secondary school students.

Section III begins with the video tape, "Man in the Street" which is designed to spark interest among the students concerning the notion of political power. The tape consists of a series of interviews conducted with people selected at random; each person interviewed was asked how much power he or she has in influencing political decisions. Another video taped interview with Richardson Dilworth relates the content of this section to political effectiveness.

Each of the three major case studies in this section contains information about a particular level of government. Each is introduced with a slide-tape presentation. The case study, "York Gets a New Charter" is used to relate the importance of different types of local government structure to government performance.[7] The York study also relates to the Home Rule question currently facing most Pennsylvania local governments. "The Party Chairman and the County Superintendent" study focuses on the issue of political patronage, an issue which cuts across all governmental levels; it is used as the point of departure in studying county government.[8] An examination of the role played by interest groups and the expansion of political conflict at the state level is the focus of the third case study, "Pressure Politics in Pennsylvania."[9]

Throughout Section III the students work on problems contained in a consumable workbook that accompanies the section. The problems require the students to find information and apply it to a plausible, practical problem. The source material for the workbook includes the case studies and other readings in the Student Resource

Book, pamphlets from the League of Women Voters and state government agencies, and the League book, **Key to the Keystone State.**

Two films are also used in this section; the first is to be chosen from three produced by the Pennsylvania Department of Community Affairs, and the choice depends upon the character (urban, suburban, rural) of the local community. The second film is a commercially produced film on state government.[10]

To relate the knowledge learned in the activities noted above to the strategy assignment from Section II, the students meet once each week in small groups with the teacher and/or community resource person. The teacher and resource person also critically examine the students' progress, raise questions which prod them to examine alternative tactics and to consider the ramifications of each, and suggest other sources of information.

IV. How Political Leaders Are Chosen: Elections and Voting

This section deals with elections and voting from two perspectives. First, the emphasis is on the person as voter. Short lectures, discussions and role playing are used here in an effort to provide the student with an increased sense of value for his right to cast the ballot as well as enough knowledge to successfully register to vote. The students examine the expansion of the franchise historically, conduct mock registration exercises with sample registration materials, and finally, those students who desire to do so, register to vote.

The second emphasis of the section is on the person as candidate. Distinctions are drawn showing the differences in candidacy at the local, state and national levels, and how the variables of party, money and popularity operate at each level.

Finally, attention is given to two aspects of modern political campaigns: the media and public opinion polls. The film, "Campaign American Style" is used in the study of the influence of media on elections.[11]

V. Selected Characteristics Influencing American Political Attitudes and Behavior

Here the students examine four basic characteristics of American social structure which influence political attitudes and behavior: sex, race, ethnicity, and social class. The section focuses on the way in which a person's status in the society influences the degree to which he feels politically effective and how differences among social groups sometimes result in new and different types of political activity.

The section begins with another look at the video tape, "Man in the Street" which now is analyzed in depth. The tape provides the basis for an hypothesis formation exercise in which the students are asked to formulate relationships between each of the pertinent variables and political power.

Following a discussion of political socialization, the students

then work in one of four groups to prepare a presentation for the class on one of the following topics: Black Politics, Women in the Political World, Social Class and Political Behavior, and Ethnic Politics.

Section V is concluded with a discussion of the video tape, "Black Political Organizing in Philadelphia." This is an interview conducted with State Representative Hardy Williams and his administrative assistant Joanne Doddy.

VI. **Evaluating Political Strategies**

The final section of the course involves the students in flow-charting activity; the students are to construct a flow-chart of their particular strategy and use this as a framework for an oral presentation of their strategies.

In-Service Workshop

All pilot teachers participated in an intensive two-week workshop prior to teaching the course. The purposes of the workshop were to acquaint the teachers with all course materials, to deal with teaching techniques included in the course and to deal as well with the political knowledge that is the course substance.

Dissemination

Dissemination activities have been conducted throughout the project partly in the hope of avoiding duplication of project efforts by local school districts. Articles such as this have been prepared for other publications, and a presentation was made at the National Council for the Social Studies Conference held in Boston in November 1972. A dissemination packet consisting of a brochure, an article describing the project and course, and copies of sample lessons was widely distributed. Finally, two dissemination conferences were planned. The first was conducted at Bloomsburg State College on October 19-20 and a second was held at the Beaver Valley Intermediate Unit in November, 1972.

Funding and Staff

Project 18 is financially supported with funds made available by the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (Title III) of 1965. The project was funded on December 13, 1971. In order to accomplish our goals by September, 1972 it was necessary to bring together a staff representing different kinds of expertise and at the same time one composed of compatible members. We were extremely fortunate in this regard. Mike Wallace and the Project Director provided an experienced teacher perspective. John Schaetzl and Elaine Ciulla Kamarck added the political science substance dimension, and Bob Field brought media expertise to the project. Finally, Sally Johnson added her secretarial and administrative skills to round out the staff. Any success the project has will in large measure be attributed to the staff associates who labored so well as a team. The ability and drive of the staff can best be measured in the quality and quantity of materials produced between late spring and mid-July,

1972 when the material was sent to the printer: three books **(Teacher's Manual, Teacher Resource Book, Student Resource Book)**, a student workbook, a pamphlet file of student materials for each pilot classroom, approximately ninety viewing minutes of video taped programming, and a series of slide tape presentations. No mean feat by anyone's standards, especially considering that only two of the staff associates were paid on a full time basis and this only between the close of the academic year and the beginning of September.

Evaluation

Dr. Peter Martorella of Temple University served as the project's outside evaluator. Both formative and summative evaluative data have been and will be gathered from interviews, on-site visits and questionnaires.

Conclusion

Project 18 is clear in purpose; it is at once substantial in content and practical. Its organization and methodology capitalize on curriculum development and social studies research generated in the last decade. The course attempts to address those grievances of social studies courses often voiced by student and the rather general condemnation of traditional civics courses expressed by scholars. It is, in short, an attempt to combine good political science with good pedagogy.

FOOTNOTES

1. **Kenneth P. Langton and M. Kent Jennings, "Political Socialization and the High School Civics Curriculum in the United States." American Political Science Review,** Vol. 62 **(Sept. 1968), pp. 852-867.**
2. **Ibid., p. 854.**
3. **Mary Jane Turner, Materials for Civics, Government, and Problems of Democracy,** Boulder, Colo.: **SSEC, 1971.**
   Also see Bernard Law Collier, "Learning to Cope in Prince Georges County," **Saturday Review,** May **22, 1971, and "Civics, Citizenship, and Communication," It Starts in the Classroom** (The Public Relations Newsletter for Classroom Teachers published by National School Public Relations Association), **January 1972.**
4. National Assessment of Education Progress. **Citizenship: National Results.** Denver, Colo.: Education Commission of the States, July, 1970.
5. "Section" is part of the High School Geography Project's **Geography in an Urban Age** now published by the Macmillan Company.
6. See Charlotte Epstein, **Affective Subjects in the Classroom: Exploring Race, Sex, and Drugs.** Scranton, Pa.: Intext Educational Publishers, 1972, pp. 4-20.
7. Sidney Wise, "York Gets a New Charter" in **Cases in State and Local Government.** Richard T. Frost (ed.) c 1961. Used by permission of Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, N.J.
8. Frank J. Sorauf, "The Party Chairman and the County Superintendent" in **Cases in State and Local Government.** Richard T. Frost (ed.) c 1961. Used by permission of Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, N.J.
9. Andrew Hacker, "Pressure Politics in Pennsylvania" in **The Uses of Power: 7 Cases in American Politics.** Alan Wostin (ed.), c 1962. Reprinted by permission of Harcourt Brace Jovanich, Inc.
10. "The Longs of Louisiana" is distributed by Encyclopaedia Britannica Educational Corp., 1822 Pickwick Ave., Glenview, Ill. 60025.
11. "Campaign American Style" is distributed by B. F. A., 2211 Michigan Ave., West Santa Monica, Calif. 90404.

STUDENT ORIENTED LEARNING: AN ATTEMPT TO USE INDEPENDENT STUDY WITHIN THE CONSTRAINTS OF A DISCIPLINE

by Lawrence J. Marzulli

INTRODUCTION to What Is Student Oriented Learning?

Dissatisfaction with routine classroom strategies, general student lack of interest in subject matter and a genuine concern for improving my own teaching experience provided me with enough incentive to attempt a new approach to teaching within a particular discipline.

In this case, the course was Social Science II, a survey of economic systems throughout the world. Normally, I would lecture, assign a paper or project, set three examination dates with the usual true and false, multiple choice, short essay and Ad Nauseam Infinitum.

All this was as stimulating as a hike through the Sahara on a Sunday afternoon. The concern for student needs, interests and motivation through the structure of a discipline — a particular subject — left much to be desired.

Independent study had been attempted before. But how could one structure and apply it to a course most students take as a requirement? How could one provide for those needs which one feels were most relevant to students such as reflective thinking, assessing one's own ability to learn, to seek knowledge, to weigh alternatives, to express himself and to value his own importance and contributions to himself and humanity?

No easy task, because these are abstract and much too difficult to measure. Is it really content we wish our students to learn in social science or is it conceptual understanding, so vital in a complex world? Is it more important only to acquire facts than it is to be able to acquire through inquiry those concepts which enable us to better understand ourselves and man?

While at Rutgers University this past summer, I was reinforced in my convictions to try independent study in courses that I teach. I was fortunate to have Dr. James Wheeler at Rutgers. His philosophy so nearly matched my own concept of teaching to meet student needs and interests that it provoked the following outcome: the concept of Student Oriented Learning.

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WHAT IS STUDENT ORIENTED LEARNING?

I. STUDENT ORIENTED LEARNING: AN ATTEMPT TO USE INDEPENDENT STUDY WITHIN THE CONSTRAINTS OF A DISCIPLINE

STUDENT ORIENTED LEARNING as conceived by the instructor is an attempt to adapt the concept of independent study to the traditional structure of classroom instruction.

Traditionally, independent study was limited to honors programs or advance study students. Little if any independent study programs have been attempted within the structure of a discipline area or at lower division instruction without resorting to ability grouping or classification.

The traditional classroom instruction included emphasis on a particular discipline, basically rigid with little attention paid to student interest or experiences. The traditional classroom instruction emphasized factual content, rote, memorization and was manifested by examinations which tested only those concepts or facts which the instructor deemed significant. Included were such requirements as term papers, written assignments, and other projects or strategies which suited the particular interest of the instructor.

Neglected were those abstract and difficult to measure outcomes which teachers preclude as "fringe benefits."
Tnese include:

a. reflective thinking

b. skills of acquiring and applying knowledge

c. student self-motivation

d. creative-imaginative writing or projects

e. self realization of a student's personal value and worth

f. recognition of one's own ability to work and learn at one's own pace

Emphasized were those attitudes illustrated by grouping which ignored individual interest differences and the experience of each student. The instructor became the dispenser of knowledge which the student took whether he liked it or not. Such instruction often reflects the instructor's own interests of discipline content which often has little relevance to the student's own particular needs.

Student Oriented Learning attempts to allow as much independent study as possible within the framework of a particular discipline. Some constraints which limit freedom of choice by the student and conversely affect independent study that the instructor found in applying it were:

1. the grading system

2. required or elective subjects

3. college policy on instruction

4. some instructors who fear innovation or changing routines
5. required text and readings
6. student inculcation with the traditional classroom concept and its operation

Student Oriented Learning when structured within the discipline (that is to say, a particular subject area such as history, biology and so forth) permits the student the following choices:

1. The study independently of a phase within the discipline he may be most interested in and to pursue it to any depth he desires.
2. The limits to how much a student may have are those imposed by a contract system which is used in order to meet the requirements of the university marking system.
3. Evaluate his own effort by providing evidence that he has done research, reading and acquiring information and so forth.
4. Provides the instructor with information regarding student interest and motivation.

II. THE OBJECTIVES AND PURPOSE OF THE EVALUATION INSTRUMENT

The objective of the evaluation instrument is to provide the instructor with an indication of student attitudes regarding the following:

Point values used for evaluation

(5) Very helpful and informative
(4) Above average
(3) Average
(2) Fair
(1) Not very meaningful or helpful
(0) No value at all

1. Lectures
2. Movies
3. Reading—outside of text
4. Readings—textbook
5. Discussion groups
6. Examinations—ones which the student bases on his own study
7. Examinations—those normally constructed by the instructor

It also measures to a degree some behavioral attitudes such as

8. Makes good use of time for reading, studying, and reflection

9. Has been able to relate readings, lectures, discussions to his own experience and interest

10. The student indicates his evaluation of the traditional classroom structure which would normally include standard examinations, required term papers, assignments and so forth

11. Provides conferences which offer the student an opportunity for a face to face opportunity to discuss the course with the instructor

No attempt was made by the instructor to interpret, define, or clarify any of the above points. Such an attempt would add the instructor's bias or slant and affect the student point value.

III. RESULTS OF SURVEY CONDUCTED DURING FIRST HALF OF FALL QUARTER 1972 IN SOCIAL SCIENCE 102 WERE:

Section 1

Question	# of Response	0	1	2	3	4	5	Mean
1 Lectures	29	0	0	1	4	9	15	4.31
2 Movies	29	0	0	2	12	7	8	3.72
3 Readings - Outside text	29	0	2	1	11	10	5	3.52
4 Readings - Textbook	29	1	2	5	7	12	2	3.25
5 Discussion Group	29	0	0	2	7	15	5	3.79
6 Examinations - own	29	0	2	2	8	8	9	3.69
7 Examinations - Instructor	29	0	5	3	16	5	0	2.72
8 Good use of time	29	0	0	6	10	11	2	3.31
9 Relate readings, lectures and discussions	29	0	0	2	6	10	11	4.03
10 Prefer traditional class	29	0	1	5	11	5	7	3.41
11 Conferences offered to student	29	4	1	1	5	9	9	3.96
Totals	319	5	13	30	97	101	73	

Section 2

1 Lectures	21	0	2	0	3	3	13	4.19
2 Movies	21	0	4	3	4	9	2	3.14
3 Readings - Outside text	21	1	0	0	4	4	12	4.40
4 Readings - Textbook	21	1	0	3	10	4	3	3.35
5 Discussion Group	21	1	1	1	3	7	8	4.00
6 Examinations - own	21	1	1	0	3	7	9	4.15
7 Examinations - instructor	21	2	5	4	8	2	0	2.37
8 Good use of time	21	1	0	3	6	4	7	3.75
9 Relate readings, lectures and discussions	21	1	0	1	4	7	8	4.10
10 Prefer traditional class	21	2	3	4	7	4	1	2.79
11 Conferences offered to student	21	2	0	0	2	3	14	4.63
Totals	231	12	16	18	54	54	77	

Section 3

1 Lectures	15	0	1	1	1	6	6	4.00
2 Movies	15	0	0	0	6	5	4	3.87
3 Readings - Outside text	15	0	0	4	3	4	4	3.53
4 Readings - Textbook	15	0	2	0	9	3	1	3.07
5 Discussion Group	15	0	0	1	6	2	6	3.87
6 Examinations - own	15	0	1	2	4	4	4	3.53
7 Examinations - instructor	15	0	4	1	9	1	0	2.47
8 Good use of time	15	1	0	0	7	6	1	3.57
9 Relate readings, lectures and dicussions	15	0	0	1	6	5	3	3.67
10 Prefer traditional class	15	1	4	3	5	2	0	2.36
11 Conferences offered to student	15	0	0	1	4	5	5	3.93
Totals	165	2	12	14	60	43	34	

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Section 4

Question	# of Response	0	1	2	3	4	5	Mean
1 Lectures	49	1	1	2	5	13	27	4.31
2 Movies	49	1	0	4	22	17	5	3.48
3 Readings - Outside text	49	2	2	1	14	18	12	3.79
4 Readings - Textbook	49	2	0	2	26	13	6	3.49
5 Discussion Group	49	2	3	6	9	15	14	3.66
6 Examinations - own	49	2	1	5	8	17	16	3.89
7 Examinations - instructor	49	9	12	10	17	0	1	2.20
8 Good use of time	49	2	3	5	14	20	5	3.40
9 Relate readings, lectures and discussions	49	2	0	2	11	16	18	4.06
10 Prefer traditional class	49	4	5	7	15	9	9	3.22
11 Conferences offered to student	49	4	3	0	4	17	21	4.18
Totals	539	31	30	44	145	155	134	

Composite

1 Lectures	114	1	4	4	13	31	61	4.25
2 Movies	114	1	4	8	44	38	19	3.53
3 Readings - Outside text	114	3	4	6	32	36	33	3.79
4 Readings - Textbook	114	4	4	10	52	32	12	3.35
5 Discussion Group	114	3	4	10	25	39	33	3.78
6 Examinations - own	114	3	5	9	23	36	38	3.84
7 Examinations - instructor	114	11	26	18	50	8	1	2.42
8 Good use of time	114	4	3	14	37	41	15	3.46
9 Relate readings, lectures and discussions	114	3	0	6	27	38	40	4.01
10 Prefer traditional class	114	7	13	19	38	20	17	3.08
11 Conferences offered to student	114	10	4	2	15	34	29	4.17
Totals	1254	50	71	106	356	352	298	

As a result of the information provided by this survey, the instructor can reconsider the types of lectures given, reassess the movies chosen for the class, consider text and other reading materials and plan new strategies. All of this becomes possible because the outcome sought should stress student involvement in structuring the course. This may be best achieved by considering the attitudes related by the instructor through the evaluation instrument. No conclusion should be made that actual learning or skill development can be measured accurately by this instrument.

This may best be measured by the following activities on the part of the student. His willingness to have conferences with the instructor, the quality of his outside work that he may voluntarily wish to turn in, or his own individual participation in class discussion. Student Oriented Learning becomes a significant change when it is planned to adapt the classroom structuring and strategies to individual needs and interests of the students and provide time for reading and reflective thinking.

The primary consideration that the instructor should give in implementing Student Oriented Learning is the amount of involvement and motivation commitment that the student himself demonstrates in the course. This involves a considerable amount of time in conferences with each student. It affords the instructor an excellent opportunity to meet each student personally; to offer suggestions and help in acquiring information and research; to work with students on a one to one basis.

STUDENT TEACHING IN AN INNOVATIVE SCHOOL

by William Elwell

This article is to record some reasons for one college's involvement with the School Without Walls Project in Rochester, New York, and to make note of some observations made by a supervisor of student teachers in the learning situation. The article will describe some of the learning activities the student teachers participated in and some of the problems faced by the students and supervisor. The implications of such involvement and problems for teacher training are also examined.

The Rochester School Without Walls is patterned on the Philadelphia Parkway Program resulting from two years of discussion among parents, students and teachers in Rochester. The school began functioning with City School District approval in the Fall of 1971. There is a centrally located headquarters with learning activities taking place in appropriate space in the community. There were 175 students, representing a cross section of Rochester high school students, involved in this school.

Six student teachers seeking provisional certification in secondary social studies from State University College at Brockport chose to do their student teaching in the School Without Walls. Only those student teachers assigned to this supervisor were asked if they wished to student teach in this school setting. The student teachers assigned to this supervisor were the only ones at Brockport not assigned to a specific student teaching center when Brockport was approached by the director of School Without Walls.

The relationship between Brockport and School Without Walls is based on the following:

1. Student teachers ought to have a choice in the type of school in which they do their student teaching. Because of the current size of the school this choice is of necessity limited, but, there may be a limited number of student teachers who can function well in this type of school.

2. Student teachers ought to operate in a school setting that values and practices openness between students and teachers. This school offers a unique opportunity for so doing.

3. Student teaching ought to be a laboratory for testing and experiencing humaneness. What happens in social studies student teaching happens in secondary schools. Teachers teach how they were taught unless they are given or take the opportunity for doing otherwise so that the initial training of teachers becomes a valuable asset in bringing about change. Brockport, and other universities, through this student teaching experience may be able to provide for some students that valuable asset.

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4. The person who expects to be a teacher for tomorrow's schools must be educated in settings endeavoring to create a new kind of tomorrow. School Without Walls is providing that kind of setting for the student teachers assigned to that school.

The six student teachers assigned to School Without Walls had the opportunity to participate in a variety of school and teacher activities not often available to student teachers in more traditionally organized schools. The first characteristic of their experience was that they were deeply needed by the staff and students at School Without Walls. In a school dedicated to individualizing instruction the need for additional adults other than the eleven adults assigned by the School District of Rochester as permanent teachers is apparent. The School Without Walls needed these student teachers to help facilitate the kind of school they are attempting to create.

The second characteristic of this experience for these student teachers was that they became immediately responsible for developing learning activities. These learning activities included regular course offerings, individual tutoring sessions, and small group instruction in addition to discovering and utilizing community resources. Although the six student teachers were working towards certification in the social studies their work with the students in the school was not limited to those academic areas as they found themselves helping students develop mathematical, scientific, literature, journalism, and reading skills. They learned what it meant to teach the whole child.

The staff meetings and Town Meetings provided rich experiences for these student teachers to see and practice cooperative planning. The cliche that teachers teach the child and not the subject matter became a reality for these students as they struggled with the staff and students in the school to build a relevant curriculum for the individual based on a non-authoritarian role for the teacher.

Working intensely with high school age students the student teachers gained an understanding of the child in terms of his emotional, social and intellectual needs that they probably could not get in more traditional student teaching situations. The student teachers worked at finding what knowledge is important to know and how to use knowledge. The student teachers often expressed to this supervisor their need to learn how to direct students into meaningful learning activities.

Since the school is experimental and innovative the student teachers were constantly enmeshed in developing and testing a philosophy of education. School Without Walls grew out of disenchantment with the traditional form of schooling and therefore the staff, student teachers and high school students are concerned with developing alternative means of schooling. As such the student teachers were faced with the necessity of putting into practice ideas that often were alien to their own experiences. The educational practices employed at School Without Walls do not enjoy widespread popularity or acceptance so that the student teachers were constantly evaluating those practices.

The student teachers assigned to School Without Walls experienced some difficulty. They were called upon to demonstrate and practice some skills for which they were ill prepared. They needed a period of time to introduce them to curriculum building and means of developing meaningful learning activities. The students were involved in School Without Walls prior to the opening of the Fall Semester at Brockport and did not participate in any methods course or introductory course in education prior to their going to the school. With this year being the first for School Without Walls the student teachers may have had less need for a prior introduction to educational practices than those who will practice teach there in the future. Future student teachers at the school must have a period of introduction to the school, philosophy and the nature of this kind of teaching. The student teachers lacked awareness of social studies skills and activities. While this is true of most students entering the professional semester at Brockport they were probably more handicapped than the others in being introduced to these skills.

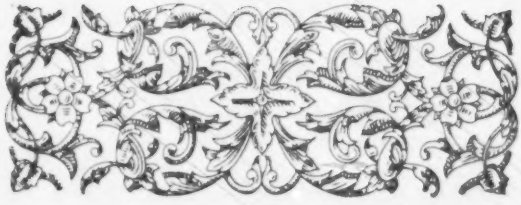
The nature of the School Without Walls made it extremely difficult for the college supervisor to give the attention to these students that they deserved. The supervisor's involvement with thirteen other students in six area schools made contact with the students assigned to School Without Walls even more difficult. With learning activities taking place in various parts of the city on alternating days contact with the student teacher in the teaching-learning situation was almost non-existent. Observing student teachers working with students on a one-to-one basis was artificial at best and obtrusive at worst. Less formal observation and more reliance on conferences seem called for in this kind of supervision.

Some of the student teachers indicated that they were bothered by a lack of a "model" teacher to emulate. Although they were assigned to a staff member at the school and worked with that person in tutorial sessions that staff member did not provide a behavioral pattern to follow in teaching. The underlying fear that they really need a "model" to follow is ironic in that this fear was first expressed to this supervisor the day that two Rochester high schools were closed by racial unrest. Opportunities for direct observation of traditional classrooms may help to alleviate this concern in the future. Many traditionally organized schools are utilizing innovate practices that these students should see in practice.

Student teachers with a greater variety of academic skills and knowledge ought to be assigned to the school. It seems likely that the nature of the school and its thrust into the community can make use of many students with training in social studies education, but, the student teachers assigned to the school can reflect the other life competencies.

New roles for the college supervisor need to be identified. How this person can serve the school and the student teachers best cannot be met by the traditional roles of the college supervisor. Greater reliance on individual and group conferences at an intensive level throughout the semester might be the only way the supervisor can meet the definite educational needs of the student teachers.

If the current literature condemning American education for its outmoded methods and pervasive mistreatment of students is accurate then change must occur. The teacher can be an initiator of these changes. Teacher training in the traditional schools probably helps to perpetuate the status quo. If schools are to become humane institutions meeting a wide variety of student needs then it seems apparent that the student teaching experience ought to be helping that becoming.



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*The advantage of paying your NCSS dues through your state organization is that ILLINOIS COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES receives $1.00 for each NCSS member who pays through the state organization.
We welcome institutional memberships.

**Until June 1, 1973, the price of the regular subscribing comprehensive and student memberships in NCSS will remain the same. Members may renew until June 1 at those rates. After that date, subscribing memberships will be $15.00.

Comprehensive membership will be $25.00.

Student membership will be $5.00.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

ICSS COMMITTEE CHAIRMEN

WORLD HISTORY
David L. Maish
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Sycamore IL 60115

SITES
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LOCAL COUNCIL LEADERS

CHICAGO COUNCIL FOR SOCIAL STUDIES
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LAMOINE VALLEY SOCIAL STUDIES COUNCIL
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VALLEY COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES
Nolan Armstrong
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Sycamore IL 60115

WEST SUBURBAN COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES
Arthur W. Sprague, Jr.
Lyons Township High School
LaGrange IL 60525

Contact these people about becoming active members in a local social studies council. Please do it today!

If there is not a local council in your area, contact Executive Secretary Gene Miller about forming one.